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THE CHILD AND THE LAW

By the Honorable William L. Whitney, Judge of the Juvenile Court of the First Circuit, Territory of Hawaii

No one thing in the United States so impresses the European stranger as the disregard, amounting almost to contempt, of its citizens for its laws. In the personal relations of man to man there exists a considerable degree of consideration the one for the other, but in the relations of the same man towards the public at large, the state, there apparently exists none at all.

To this indifference to law as such is attributed many, if not most, of our social and political woes.

The reason for its existence seems to lie at the very foundation of our governmental theory. In any government "gaining its just rights from the consent of the governed," the governed are, in all human probability, likely to feel superior to those whom they have chosen to govern. The policeman on the corner is set there by me to assist me in crossing the street, not to prevent me from crossing when I desire so to do. The judge on the bench is set there to protect me from the wrong my neighbor would do me, not to restrain me from inflicting a like wrong on him. The president at Washington is there to protect my business, not the next man's. And so it goes. We are freemen, not to be ordered or commanded, but to be gently led by the hand, to be morally persuaded, to be cared for when we need it, coddled if we desire it, but ruled—never! It is therefore quite logical that for a rule of conduct, as such, we should have little respect.

As in all great public sentiments, there is in this feeling somewhat of truth and a good deal of error. It is this sentiment which made us sturdy pioneers; it is this belief which enabled us and will enable us, to throw off the yokes which have galled, the wrong we inherit. But in its essence it is the theory of the savage, the restlessness under restraint of the unthinking, the selfish individualism of America today. But in our endeavors to right the wrong we should equally care to preserve the good as to eradicate the evil. It is an aphorism to say that the real work of redemption must be accomplished in the child. No great change will

come in the minds and opinions of men who have grown old in the belief that they are above and superior to the law; that they owe no duty to the state to see that its rules of conduct are enforced, its laws obeyed; that not only do they constitute the state, but that in them lies the decision of whether or not a statute shall be obeyed or shall be treated with disregard and contempt.

How, then, are we to impress on the youth of the land a sense of his responsibility for his own personal conduct in its relations to the state, his duty to obey a law because it is a law, an understanding of the reason for the law's existence, the necessity of its preservation?

Responsibility is taught by responsibility, understanding comes, primarily, from experience. He only will appreciate the responsibility of another's position who himself is responsible for something. No amount of precept could have brought so real a lesson of obedience and authority as did the intimate personal experience of that centurion who said "For I also am a man set under authority, having under myself soldiers, and I say to one go and he goeth and to another come and he cometh." To him and to those under him obedience to law was natural, a part of the scheme of things. It was not an usurpation by one of another's right, but a necessity to all.

So, I take it, must we teach responsibility. Not until on each man and woman, each boy and girl, is responsibility placed will he understand the meaning of the word, will he grasp the natural necessity therefor.

But these are mere generalities, easy to preach, but hard indeed to put into practice. How are we to place on boys and girls such a degree of responsibility that their sense of duty towards themselves, others, and the state at large will be quickened into being? I do not pretend to answer but offer these merely as suggestions and for what they may be worth. I have grouped them under the heads of "attendance" and "honesty."

As to attendance. In my opinion, if a child passes

through seven or eight years of schooling and learns no more than regularity and punctuality of attendance, his time has been well spent. I have often said, and still believe, that let a juvenile judge handle satisfactorily every case of truancy as soon as it arises and the juvenile court would have little to do in the matter of other and what are deemed more serious offenses. To my mind, the most serious day in a boy's young life is the day when, either led by companions, or with malice aforethought, he voluntarily remains away from school. To a boy of this age all law is centered about two institutions, the home and the school. To him the authority of the home is easily understood and is ever present. Its rules are so numerous and their enforcement so universally expected and decreed that there is small chance of his questioning either the right to make or the power to enforce the rule. In other words, the home represents to him then, as it does later in life, the individual.

Such, however, is not the case with the school. That institution, not directly under the guidance of his parents, is open to suspicion and to question. Its rules are not to be enforced by an ever-present authority with an ever-present reward or punishment. Created by others than himself, it is to him extraordinary that he should be expected to obey its rules. In other words, it represents to him the state. The voluntary breach of its rules, the first of which is attendance, is no peccadillo to be easily overlooked, the mere effulgence of boyish, animal spirits. It is a contemplated breach of the law of the land, the only law which has yet come in his path. The effects of such an offense are, I believe, more lasting, more serious, more detrimental than any crime he will later commit. I am aware this language sounds extravagant.

To enforce attendance, the truant officer—even where efficient, of which we have never been able yet to boast—is of little avail, and the juvenile court of less. The real work must be done by the teacher and the task is by no means an easy one. The development of school and class *esprit de corps*, precept of individual responsibility, reward and punishment, these are means ordinarily and regularly used. We have found in the juvenile court, where we handle only the most incorrigible truants, that truancy is not ordinarily an individual undertaking but is generally an incident of the formation of the "gang." To find the leader of the gang and to place on him the responsibility of the attendance of all his followers, this has proved with us to be a most efficient means of enforcing regularity.

So long as boyhood exists there will exist the division of the leaders and the led. And so long as this division lasts can we avail ourselves thereof and use the influence of the leader for the betterment of all. In the court we frankly and fully acknowledge the authority of the leader, accord to him his place and endeavor to inculcate in him the idea that, with his position comes his responsibility to us as representing the law, as representing the state in his small community.

As to honesty. By honesty I mean fair dealing, an inherent idea of the rights of others and the duty of fair play with one's fellows. There is in the boy no idea of honesty. He is essentially a savage. The primordial instincts of self preservation and the necessity of individual survival are not only dominant but are the only instincts he recognizes. A boy steals from another because he wants what the other boy has. It makes not the slightest difference to him that the other boy is to be in equal measure a loser by his gain. A boy strikes another not to injure the other but to better himself, and the fact of the other's injury is a matter of entire indifference to him. A boy gambles not that he may take from another but that he himself may acquire, and the fact of the other's loss is nothing to him.

The love of life, the passion of self preservation and the lust of self advancement are mighty passions and to replace them by what I have called the spirit of honesty is a task to try the wisest, a task which can only be accomplished by the substitution of other mighty influences. And these, as I have before said, seem to me to be responsibility and experience. If a boy can be taught *not* that he must leave the property of another alone but that he is responsible for the protection of that property, theft and its kindred vices cease. When the lad has once comprehended his duty not only of not himself attacking the smaller boy but of protecting him from the attacks of others, fighting and like offenses are no more.

And when once the boy realizes that, in the plan of things, he is looked upon as the protector of the girl and not her foe, her shield, not her assailant, obscenity ceases and moral vice has received its death-wound. But again we face the question of how this responsibility is to be brought home. A boy generally does—at least such is my experience—about what he is expected to do. Certainly he does no more than he is expected to do. If the attitude of the parent and the teacher is one of expectation that the boy will protect the property and person of others, that he will be responsible for the protection of the smaller boy and the girl with

whom he plays, this attitude is bound to react on the boy.

You may call this faith in the boy, you may call it the empirical system of moral instruction, or any other name, but the idea is not utopian, as many a teacher will bear me witness. It takes more faith in one's self even than in the boy. It takes an unbounded enthusiasm and an optimism that will not down. But the results warrant the effort. The lesson learned, a citizen worth the name has been made, a truth impressed which can never be wholly eradicated. "That which cometh out of the man, that defileth the man" if it be evil, and likewise purifieth the man if it be good. And once we have honest intentions and motives springing from a boy's heart into action we shall have no need for precept or instruction, and school punishment and court correction will pass into disuse.

It is obvious that all the relations of a boy with his mate and a man with his state are bound up in this principle I have termed honesty. But to the young boy it is often a difficult mental process to discover in a given law any obligation to another. It is well, it has always seemed to me, to bear somewhat lightly on these more complicated obligations that the simpler relations may be more grasped and more fully understood. To

regard the property of another, to protect those who need protection, these are sentiments easily understood. But the question of why it is wrong to ride on the left side of a road, or at night without a light, these are social obligations too complex for the youthful mind, and must, in large measure, be taken by him as necessary on the authority of his teacher's word.

What, then, shall be the attitude of the child to the law? So long as our education places the boy and girl or the man and woman *without* the law; so long as the law remains merely "a rule of action prescribed by a superior which an inferior is bound to obey," so long shall we have under this democratic form of government a revolt against law as such. Nursing our fetish of "equality," we deny the existence of any superior to prescribe, we repudiate the fact of any inferior to obey.

Not till America learns that law is but the expression of that union which makes life livable and the state but an agent for the accomplishment of labor far too great for the individual shall our relations to both law and state cease to be our shame.

Not till the boy and girl has learned that he and she has each his part—a part none other can take—in the well being of the other shall our schools have done their full duty by the coming generations.

The Schools of Hawaii stand foremost among the agencies at work for the Americanization and uplift of this important part of the United States

A Remarkable Centenary. Kauikeaouli—Kamehameha III.

The centenary of Kauikeaouli, Ka Moi Lokomaikai (The Beneficent King), better known as Kamehameha III, was celebrated impressively at Kawaiahao church, Honolulu, on the afternoon of March 17th, 1914. In this old edifice, which has been used for so many of the ceremonies of the Hawaiian people, an audience of nearly 3,000 followed with intense interest the exercises that were held under the auspices of the Daughters of Hawaii.

The memorial tablet of Hawaiian lava stone, carved under the direction of the Daughters of Hawaii and which was to be unveiled by Her Majesty, Queen Liliuokalani and High Chiefess Elizabeth Kekaaniau Pratt, was hidden from view by the royal standard of Liliuokalani and an Hawaiian flag.

The Queen and High Chiefess Elizabeth Kekaaniau Pratt, both of whom are lineal descendants of Keawe, the ancient king of Hawaii, and founder of the Kamehameha dynasty, were seated on either side of the memorial stone in the nave of the church. The palace chairs in which they sat were draped with ancient Hawaiian feather capes of priceless value.

Back of the Queen and High Chiefess Pratt were High Chiefs Beckley and Hoapili, clad in the ceremonial feather cloaks and helmets of the Royal Courtiers. High Chief Fred Kahapula Beckley, the spear-bearer, is a direct descendant through his father's side from Kameeaimoku. High Chief Albert Kalaninoa-noa Hoapili, the kahili bearer, is a lineal descendant of Kamanawa, the royal kahili bearer. These two, therefore, in this ceremony represented the spear-bearer and kahili-bearer who are shown on the Hawaiian coat of arms and are descendants of the two chief court alii of Kamehameha I.

On either side of the royal court representatives were the kahili-bearers in ordinary, sixteen young men from the Kamehameha School for Boys, robed in feather capes and the costumes of the warriors of old, representative of the court attendants.

The chancel and pulpit were decorated with beautiful ferns and palms while above was the royal standard of Kalakaua and the Hawaiian flags, both now the property of and loaned by the Kapiolani Estate.

The strange and beautiful setting doubtless was a replica of a court scene in the days of the old regime when the Kamehamehas held sway. The costuming of the participants was perfect, and there was presented a spectacle in which was brought out many ancient and rare reliques which today are treasured by Honolulu families and which are seldom seen other than in private homes, where they are held almost sacred.

After the singing of a hymn "How Firm a Foundation," Rev. Henry E. Poepoe gave the invocation. Then

the royal chanter, Mrs. Naha Hakuole, chanted the *koihonua* or song of genealogy of the kings. The church was stilled, and not a sound was audible other than the weird, rhythmic song which told the story of those from whom the beneficent king descended.

Following this the Queen released her personal flag which covered the memorial tablet, and at the same time High Chiefess Pratt released the Hawaiian flag, and the handsome stone was uncovered. The "Prayer of Life," the most sacred of all Hawaiian chants, was then chanted by Mrs. Hakuole. This chant, it is said, since the birth of Kamehameha III, has never been set down in writing, but has been conveyed by word of mouth from generation to generation. The history which surrounds it is that Kamehameha III, at his birth, was as one dead, and the royal babe was restored to life when the royal chanter invoked the assistance of the gods by chanting "The Prayer of Life."

Succeeding this interesting ceremony, orations commemorative of the life and good deeds of Kamehameha were delivered by Judge A. S. Mahaulu, Rev. W. B. Oleson and Rev. John T. Gulick.

The boys and girls of the Kamehameha Schools sang the Pauahi Song dedicated to Mrs. Charles R. Bishop. The girls sang their Kamehameha School Song with a thrilling effect. The Royal Hawaiian band played and sang Hawaii Ponoi with the audience joining.

The granite tablet will be placed in the stone which marks the birthplace of this king at Keauhou, long known as one of the most beautiful spots along the wonderful Kona coast. Here it was that the high chiefs who had been designated as the guardians of the child of the king and the high chiefess mother had gathered, in anticipation of the event and eager for the especial honor that was to be theirs as the foster parents of the expected prince. Keen was the disappointment, therefore, when coupled with the announcement that a man child had just been born came the news that it had been born dead, and the chiefs turned away in sorrow. The high priest, however, took the apparently lifeless body of the babe in his arms and hurried into the neighboring heiau, where he called upon the gods, chanting what is now known as the Kauikeaouli, Life-Giving Prayer, as a result of which the babe began to breathe and live.

Such is the Hawaiian story of the birth of Kauikeaouli, whose name means "Held on the jaws of Uli" and which is properly divisible "Kau-i-ke-a-o-Uli." Uli is the Hawaiian god of justice and Hawaiians even of today, familiar with the customs of the past, in the event of injustice or injury, invoke the aid of Uli in these words: "Uli nana pono; Uli nana hewa," which may be translated: "Uli who judges between the right and the wrong."

Hawaiian history tells much of the innate goodness of Kamehameha III and of the kingly actions and ideas that cause him to stand out as a conspicuous figure as one who loved his people and who ruled to benefit his subjects. Hawaiian folklore and tradition also deal kindly with the memory of this man. One incident is related that furnishes an index of the character of this most beloved of Hawaiian kings. As a prince, Kauikeaouli was brought up on Hawaii and was at Waiakea when the news came from England of the death of Liholiho, making him the king. Just before the courier arrived with the tidings, Kauikeaouli, with a number of companions, had gone fishing at the flood gate of one of the Waiakea fish ponds, where he was found by the guardian of the pond. This guardian, not knowing him, indignantly demanded an explanation of the presence of the boys at this tabu spot and angrily inquired how they dared thus trespass upon the preserve of the alii. Some of the boys ran to call the high chief, Maala, the local guardian of the prince, who at that identical moment was hastening towards the new king with the news from Honolulu.

On learning of the indignities heaped upon the most sacred of all the tabu chiefs—which Kauikeaouli was by reason of the extreme rank of both his father and his mother—the guardian called upon the young chief to render his first judgment as king, asking whether the caretaker of the pond should be put to death for his angry words, a punishment fitting the crime in the opinion of those days.

Kauikeaouli answered: "No, the man shall not die. We have need of guardians who are thus faithful."

Kauikeaouli was born on March 17, 1814, at Keauhou in the district of Kona, Island of Hawaii. His father was the renowned king and conqueror, Kamehameha I, and his mother Keonuolani, daughter of Kiwaloa, son of Kalaiopuu of Kau. On the day before her death, his mother, while conversing with the celebrated chief, Kalaimoku, said: "I wish that my two children, Kauikeaouli and Nahienaena (daughter) should know God and serve him, and be instructed in Christianity. I wish you to take care of these my two children, see that they walk in the right way, counsel them, let them not associate with bad companions."

The earliest education which the young prince received was at Kailua from the Rev. A. Thurston and Thomas Hopu, the latter a native who had been educated in the United States. In Honolulu he studied under the Rev. Hiram Bingham. His father died on May 8, 1819, and his mother on September 16, 1823. Toward the end of that year Kamehameha II (Liholiho) with his queen Kamehamalu embarked for England where they both died in 1824. Their bodies were brought to the islands in the British frigate Blonde commanded by Lord Byron in 1825. About May in that year, Kamehameha III (Kauikeaouli) entered upon his reign, but under the political guidance of a supreme ruler or kuhina nui, until March, 1833, when he declared to the chiefs his wish to take into his own hands the islands for which his father had toiled, the powers of life and

death, and the undivided sovereignty, which he did, confirming Kinau (Kaahumanu II) as kuhina nui, in the 20th year of his age.

On February 4, 1837, he wedded Kalama, daughter of Naihekukui, who survived him. Being childless, the king adopted as his son and heir Alexander Liholiho, who reigned as Kamehameha IV.

A declaration of rights was signed and promulgated by the king in June, 1839. This may be considered the Magna Charta of Hawaiian freedom, and was the first step toward the establishment of individual property rights, also a guarantee of religious liberty. The first Constitution was proclaimed in October, 1840, and the right to hold land in fee simple in 1848. This was known as the "Mahele" or great division of the lands. Up to this time all lands in the islands were held by feudal tenure. Ownership was for life only, while only the chiefs had even this limited right. On the death of a chief his lands reverted to the king, who could give them to whomever he chose. There had indeed grown up in some degree the custom of confirming the lands of chiefs to their heirs, and of continuing the use and occupation of land by the common people to the heirs of those who had last cultivated or occupied them. But the legal title remained in the king.

By the "Great Division," roughly, one-third of the lands of the kingdom was distributed among the chiefs; another third was distributed among the common people, every Hawaiian adult receiving a "Kuleana" or homestead, and the remaining third was reserved to the king, who afterward set apart half of his lands for the government, retaining the other half for his own private property. The domain given to the government was known as government lands, and that reserved by the king as crown lands, until after the overthrow of the monarchy, when the republican administration claimed both as public lands, Congress after annexation ratifying the claim. Former Queen Liliuokalani makes the confiscating of the crown lands part of her pending claim against the United States for compensation for the loss of her sovereignty, as she alleges, through the aid of the United States forces to revolution.

Kamehameha III died after a brief illness on December 15, 1854. There are many incidents to show the loving, kindly, democratic nature of the good king.

Of Kamehameha III, the late Dr. W. D. Alexander, historian, said: "His memory will ever be dear to his people for his unselfish patriotism, for the liberal constitution which he granted them, and for the gift of the right to hold lands in fee simple. His reign will also be memorable for the unexampled progress made by the nation and from its wonderful preservation from the many perils which beset it. He loved his country and his people. He was true and steadfast in friendship. Duplicity and intrigue were foreign to his nature. He always chose men of tried integrity for responsible offices, and never betrayed secrets of state, even in his most unguarded moments."

He it was who gave to his people at a thanksgiving service following the restoration of the flag by Admiral

Thomas, that device of which they are ever fondly proud—"Ua mau ka ea o ka aina i ka pono"—The life of the land is perpetuated in righteousness.

Following is the address delivered by Rev. W. B. Oleson:

"It is fitting on this centennial anniversary of the birth of Kauikeaouli, son of Kamehameha the Great and himself the beloved king of Hawaii nei, for over a score of years, that we should recall that it was he who strongly urged the erection of this building in which we are assembled, generously subscribing \$3000 toward its cost; that it was he who at the dedication of this house of worship in 1842, presented the church with a deed to the building and the site; and that it was he who, on the occasion of the restoration of the national sovereignty in 1843, at a special thanksgiving service held in this auditorium, addressed the great congregation and uttered the words which became the national motto: "Ua mau ka ea o ka aina i ka pono"—The life of the land is perpetuated in righteousness.

"It is fitting therefore that this should be the scene of special recognition of the great statesmanship and personal worth of the great benefactor of his people.

"Covering a span of only two-score years, his life began with the breaking down of the ancient tabu system, and ended with the establishment of constitutional government throughout the nation.

"Notwithstanding he was born into the world a well-nigh lifeless babe, he was destined to achieve for his people more than all the monarchs of Hawaii.

"Thus he was permitted by the sanction of his brother, the king, to sit down in his Kona home and to eat with his mother, thus doing a forbidden thing; and by that act, though he was a mere child, he dealt the death blow to the tabu system that was already tottering under the weight of its cruel oppressions.

"Accustomed to dissolute associations, and apparently hopelessly entangled with reactionaries, he surprised the whole nation when, at the early age of 20, in assuming full sovereignty, he placed himself squarely before his people on the side of righteousness by the choice of the Christian princess, Kinau, as his premier.

"King John of England granted Magna Charta to his rebellious barons under the stress of armed constraint. But Kauikeaouli, when only 26 years of age, without constraint and of his own free will, proclaimed a bill of rights such as no other sovereign probably has ever accorded his people voluntarily. That bill of rights emancipated the common people from serfdom, and conferred on them the privilege of owning their own lands, and of enjoying unhindered the labor of their hands.

"It does not detract anything from the honorable record of Abraham Lincoln to recall that however much he desired the emancipation of the negro, he was not able to effect it until political and military necessity compelled it. Kauikeaouli emancipated his people from their irksome bondage not through compulsion, or the force of circumstances, but by reason of his own generous regard for the happiness of his people.

"Later on he made the emancipation of his people effective by setting apart one-third of the land so that every Hawaiian might become a landowner. This was known as the Great Mahele, and this act of Kauikeaouli's will always stand out in the history of Hawaii as the noblest effort of a generous monarch to promote the progress and prosperity of his people.

"Most nations have arrived at constitutional government through the grudging concessions of rulers and the slow process of agitation and civil conflict. But Kauikeaouli conferred constitutional government on his people as the natural climax of what he had undertaken in their behalf. And so he gave them first the constitution of 1840, and finally the ampler constitution of 1852, admitting the common people to a share in the enactment and execution of laws for the common good.

"For 22 years Kauikeaouli was the progressive and statesmanlike leader of his people. And he was such in the face of great crises and changes in the national history. Two great epidemics decimated his people. Repeatedly the independence of Hawaii was menaced by the unjust encroachment of foreign nations. The great awakening created conditions that necessitated schools, and courts, and land commissions, and systems of taxation, and all the paraphernalia of a civilized community. The doctrine of religious toleration had to be established. Protection for his people from the ravages of strong drink, was a commanding issue. So was the necessity of shielding his people from the lustful assaults incidental to the presence here of as many as 500 whaling vessels in a single year.

"He was a wise ruler, who kept wise counselors about him, and his ambition was to serve his people well and to hold them to what was right.

"He had his faults, but no one knew them or regretted them more than he. To the young chiefs gathered in their school, he said: 'I wish my lot had been like yours. I deeply regret the foolish manner in which I spent the years of my youth.'

"He was a remarkable man, in the forefront of remarkable changes in the life of a whole nation. The marvel is that one short life should compass such a transformation as Hawaii experienced from 1813 to 1854, and that that life should have been a part of it all.

"In no small degree was this due to the pronounced influence of three noble daughters of Hawaii—Keopulani, Kaahumanu and Kinau. Sturdy in their loyalty to Christian ideals, their counsels were of inestimable value to Kauikeaouli in giving direction to his convictions and in helping to shape his decisions in great exigencies.

"This memorial tablet, when finally erected at his birthplace, shall speak to coming generations as they shall read the inscription. But an even nobler memorial is that which is written in the hearts of the Hawaiian people and of every lover of their race.

"It is fitting that I should quote in closing, the words uttered by Kamehameha IV in this house of worship

in his address on the occasion of his taking the oath to maintain the constitution January 11, 1855:

"The age of Kamehameha III was one of progress and of liberty, of schools and of civilization. He gave us a constitution, and fixed laws; he secured the people in their title to their lands and removed the last chain of oppression. He gave them a voice in his councils and in the making of the laws by which they are governed. He was a great national benefactor, and has left the impress of his mild and amiable disposition on the age for which he was born."

Proper exercises were also held the same day at Lahaina, Maui, in the Kamehameha III School Building, a beautiful \$30,000 structure which stands on the spot where this beneficent king gave to his people their first constitution.

This building was named by a resolution of the legislature in 1913, to commemorate the acts of this just and conscientious ruler—Kauikeaouli—and is a magnificent memorial to him.

Voluntary Medical Inspection

Of 1,300 school superintendents in cities between 2,500 and 30,000 population, replying to a questionnaire submitted by the U. S. Bureau of Education, only 516 report medical inspection. Of these 516 cities only 86 employ a school nurse.

Some school boards decline to employ a medical inspector, on the ground that an examination by a physician paid only a few hundred dollars a year, as is the case in most of the smaller cities, would be superficial.

In a few of these cities examinations are made free of charge by the physicians acting in cooperation. Jeannette, Pa., a city of about 10,000 population, was one of the first cities to institute medical inspection of this type. At the request of the Bureau of Education, Superintendent Theo. B. Shank, of the Jeannette schools, has furnished a brief statement of the operation of the plan in his schools. Mr. Shank says:

"In this community medical inspection is conducted practically without expense to the taxpayers. The physicians and dentists were persuaded to undertake the work gratuitously, by being shown that it would not only be a very gracious and generous act, but that eventually it would be a good thing for the professions which they represent.

"The board of education was very willing to equip a room with everything necessary for the examinations, and the work was begun five years ago. The people

of the community were assured that the work would be suggestive merely, and they were asked to cooperate. All the children were examined; they received cards indicating defects; and their parents were advised to see the family physicians or dentists, as the case might be. Free clinics were offered for those who did not feel financially able to have the work done. No nurse has ever been employed, but the teachers were asked to follow up the work as much as possible and to report to the superintendent the results noted. Many children had operations of a minor nature performed, and there was a decided improvement in care of the teeth and general personal appearance.

"One important result of the work has been to remove from the children the inherent fear of the physician and of the dentist. Many parents have developed the habit of visiting the physician to ascertain whether there may be anything wrong with their children instead of merely waiting for serious illness to warn them of danger. During the examinations, physicians talk to the pupils and give them valuable hints as to health; the lessons which they learn in this way are found to be much more impressive than the teaching of hygiene in the schools. At the examinations, which take place early in the school year, five or six physicians and one dentist are present. The physicians are a unit in declaring that they consider themselves better doctors for the experience of seeing so many children and so many different manifestations of the various diseases of children.

"The cost of necessary equipment for this plan does not exceed \$150. As there is no other expense attached to the examination, any small town can do the work. Our experience has shown that as a result of the free medical inspection the children are cleaner and neater in appearance; incipient cases of tuberculosis are discovered in time to be successfully treated; trouble with adenoids is detected in many cases; defective eyes are helped before it is too late; a bad heart found in time to save. These and many other instances have convinced Jeannette that medical inspection is very much worth while."

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The Success of the Public Schools.

A prominent lady wrote to a Superintendent of Public Instruction, asking him if, in his opinion, the public school system of the country was a failure. The following is his reply:

"To one who has spent his life in public education work, in the one-room country schools, in the village and city schools, in the normal schools, and with two years of experience at the head of a private school, and who is now Superintendent of Public Instruction, such a question as you present provokes a smile.

The success of the American public school system is as plain to me as that two and two make four. I know that one fact comes from an exact science and the other is an induction from observation and study. But the truth of one is just as substantial and defendable as the other. Every democratic state, the world over, has been forced to the conclusion that the safety and perpetuity of such a state depends upon the establishment and maintenance of universal standards of intelligence, morality and citizenship.

The only instrument which has proved effective and successful in establishing and maintaining these universal standards is the public school system. Wherever schools have been established under private or church control they have served a useful and a worthy purpose. These, however, care for the children of only a few. The great masses must receive their instruction, their standards of intelligence, morality, and citizenship from the state-established, state-maintained, and state-administered schools.

If one wants to see the difference between a government based upon the standards of intelligence, morality, and citizenship which are established and maintained by public education and a country where no such system obtains, compare the United States with Mexico. In the United States, nineteen out of every hundred of its population are enrolled in the common schools of the country. In Mexico only one out of every six thousand of its people have an elementary school opportunity. It is impossible for one, without a personal visit, to

imagine the dense superstition and ignorance of this country that is older than the United States. I know there is a difference in the temperament and the disposition of the people, but after all allowances are made the real fact remains.

As an administrator in public education, I do not fail to see nor to admit the faults in public education. Some of these adhere with wonderful tenacity. None of the faults, however, which have been called to my attention, reach the heart of the matter. They are superficial or incidental and will probably be present, to a greater or less extent, as long as the system endures. There is a tendency at the present time to point to some of these superficial or incidental faults in public education and to condemn the entire system upon this ground.

Democracy is the great success of human evolution, and yet there are those who, fixing their attention only upon its faults, declare it a failure. The Christian church, holding aloft as it does those ideals without which no nation can long endure, is the success of the ages, but every once in a while some one arises to proclaim it a total failure.

The public school is a much younger and more imperfect institution than the church or the democratic state. Some of its faults are due to its immaturity, but *an institution, not a century old, that touches the lives of eighteen million boys and girls, giving them higher standards of intelligence, morality, and citizenship is in no sense a failure.*

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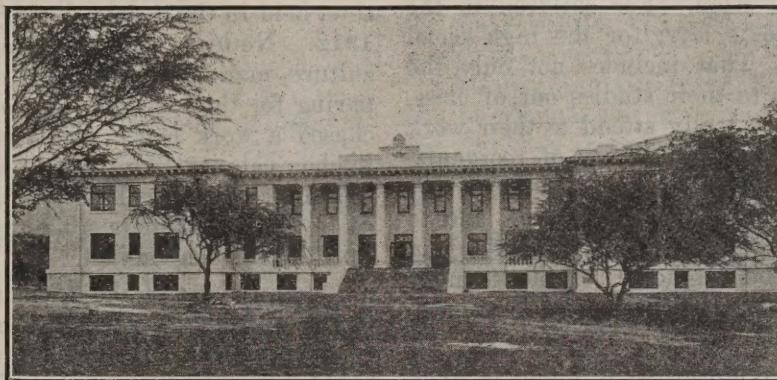
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School and the Summer Vacation.

In the cities, towns, manufacturing villages, and unincorporated suburban communities of the United States there are approximately 13,000,000 children between the ages of 6 and 20. Of these, more than 9,500,000 are enrolled in the public and private schools. The average daily attendance is about 6,500,000. These children are taught by more than 300,000 teachers, at an annual cost for all purposes of about \$300,000,000. The city schools are in session about 180 days in the year. The average daily session is 5 hours.

Children who attend school regularly and without tardiness have 900 hours of schooling in the year. The average attendance of those enrolled is 120 days, or 600 hours. There are in the year 8,760 hours, 5,110 working hours for children who sleep 10 hours a day. Children who attend school the full time are in the school a little less than one-third of the waking hours of 180 days and not in school at all 185 days. The average attendance is only about one-third of the waking hours of 120 days, with no attendance on 245 days. Children who attend all of the school hours of the year are in school 900 hours, and out of school 4,200 waking hours; the average is 600 hours in school and 4,510 waking hours out of the school.

Probably 5 per cent of the school children of the cities and towns and suburban communities go away during the summer to the country and summer resorts; 10 per cent or less have some useful occupation through the vacation months, and 85 per cent or more are at home without useful occupation.

They spend the time in idleness on the streets and alleys without guidance, on vacant lots, or swelter in crowded houses and on superheated streets. Much that was learned in school at previous sessions is forgotten;

many of the children become criminals, and still more form habits of idleness.

The schools, which are established and maintained for the purpose of educating children into manhood and womanhood, of preparing them for society and citizenship, and of giving them such knowledge and training as will enable them to make an honest living, should provide some kind of instruction for the great mass of these children through what is now, in most cities, a long, wasteful vacation.

I believe no one will claim that the addition of 400 or 500 hours to the number spent in school would be a burden to any child. The addition of 3 school months of 5 hours a day would mean only 300 hours to the school year to children attending regularly and promptly, and only 200 hours to the average child on the basis of present attendance. This would give 1,200 hours for children attending the full time and 800 hours for the average child; of course much less than this for many.

Possibly the school day in the summer session should be not more than 4 hours; that is from 7 or 8 o'clock to 11 or 12 o'clock in the forenoon. School work can be much better done during these hours in the summer than in the present school hours of the winter months. Attendance is easier and buildings do not need to be heated.

Where such a program is organized, it may be found necessary to change the school work, so as to give more laboratory and shopwork during the summer sessions than in the winter and less of the ordinary bookwork. Children attending the summer session under these conditions would, no doubt, be much happier and healthier than they are turned loose, with nothing to do, on the streets and alleys. It is a mistake to suppose that children do not like to work. All children do like to work

at whatever is of real benefit to them until they learn to be idle.

A number of careful studies made in different parts of the country and in schools of different kinds indicate that children really do not study in school more than an average of 3 hours a day, whatever may be the length of the daily session. For children in the primary grades, the time is less; for the high-school grades, somewhat more. That includes not only the time which children give to their studies out of class, but the time in which they really attend to their work in class. This indicates the desirability of reorganizing school work in such way as to give 3 hours a day for intensive school work of the ordinary type, and to provide 4 or 5 hours of productive work suited to the capacity of the child, either at home, in shops under good conditions, in outdoor gardens, or in shops provided by the school.

With this kind of an organization, it would be very easy for children to work at ordinary school work 3 hours a day 6 days in the week, through 11 calendar months in the year, and at the same time contribute largely to their own support by well-directed, productive educational work, either at home or in the school, thus making it possible for the great majority of children to remain in school throughout the high-school period.

The cost of adding the 3 months of school would be comparatively little. There would be no cost for fuel, the cost of attendance would be less, and the additional cost for teachers would not be in proportion to the number of days added. Whatever may be the terms of the contract, teachers are in fact employed by the year. Comparatively few of them use the vacation months in any profitable way. An addition of an average of \$300 to the annual salary of the teachers would require a total of less than \$10,000,000, or about 3 per cent of the total annual cost of the schools.

For most teachers the additional months would not be a hardship, especially if the school days were shortened. Certainly this is true if teachers could be relieved of a large amount of unnecessary bookkeeping, report making, and the reading of unnecessary examination papers, with which they are now burdened. It would cost very little more to employ teachers by the year, each teacher teaching three quarters as is now done in many universities and colleges.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

What a One-room Rural School Is Doing In Industrial Education.

(By L. R. Willis, County Superintendent of Schools.
Hastings, Nebr.)

The school in District No. 40 was the first rural school in Adams County, Nebraska, to do systematic work in domestic science and agriculture. This is a

one-room school, about four and one half miles from Hastings. It has no better equipments nor surroundings than the average rural school. In many respects it is not as well equipped as many other schools.

The beginning of the work in domestic science was the outgrowth of an industrial county teachers' institute, held in the county during the last week of August, 1912. Nothing was offered at that institute but agriculture, manual training and domestic science. In preparing for the institute, the county superintendent purchased a work bench and complete set of tools and a kitchen cabinet. On the closing day of the institute a spelling contest was held and these articles were awarded to the best spellers. The teacher in District No. 40 won the kitchen cabinet.

Late in the fall the teacher and larger girls began to lay plans for work in cooking. The pupils furnished the material, and under the teacher's directions prepared a number of articles of food. During the cold weather they prepared soup or an oatmeal porridge for their lunch. They also baked bread, cookies, cakes, etc. This work was all done by the girls under the guidance of the teacher.

One of the pleasing features of the work was the fact that the school was able to overcome the objections made by many people concerning the teaching of the subjects in school, in that no time was taken from the regular school hours. The pupils did the work before and after school and at the intermission periods. This year the same objection is not advanced. The school is still doing the work as in the previous year and has also added sewing to the course. They now give a part of three afternoons each week to this work—time taken during the school hours.

The work in sewing is especially interesting. The pupils keep notebooks of all their work. They write up their notes at the close of each lesson and fasten in their notebooks the work they are doing, so far as they can. This includes samples of fancy and plain patching, the various stitching, hemming, darning, etc. The complete articles, such as plain and fancy aprons and plain dresses, are taken home and used as finished.

This spring the pupils are studying elementary agriculture with the other work. A great deal of it will be experimental work, such as the testing of seeds, testing the water-holding capacity of various soils, a study of soils, testing of milk for butter fat, study of plants, etc.

The school has a kitchen cabinet, a 3-hole oil stove with oven, a set of dishes, and various utensils necessary to carry on this work. Other equipments will be added from time to time. The people of the district are interested in this phase of school work as much as they are in the book part. It will set as leaven not only in the community but also in the country. It means the beginning of the introduction of some practical phases of school work to supplement the work in books.

The present teacher is serving her first year in the

school. She is a high-school graduate of normal-training course with four years' experience. She has never lived on a farm, but she has entered into the life work of the community, in this way making up to a very large degree for the lack of experience of farm life.

BIBLE LITERATURE.

By T. H. GIBSON.

It is much to be regretted that the youth of today is so little acquainted with the literature of the Bible. Leaving out of the question entirely whether the Bible is a divinely inspired book or not the person who does not become familiar with the scriptures in his youth has missed a great pleasure in his life. In no other literature do we find such a wealth of myth, legend and poetry. The Bible is not one book but a whole library—sixty-six books, written by many different authors at different times, under different circumstances, for different purposes, and it covers a period in the history of man of more than a thousand years.

In these books we find ancient legends, myths, folklore, fiction, biography, history, constitutional and ecclesiastical law, political statutes, sociology, philosophy and poetry.

We sometimes hear people express pity for children who lived forty or fifty years ago that they were denied the pleasure to be derived from the great wealth of juvenile books, beautiful and interesting, which are accessible to the children of today. They often allude with sympathy to the homes where the only book was the Bible, not realizing that where they had the Bible they had a large and varied assortment of reading matter, perhaps equal to President Eliot's six-foot shelf of books.

As they were masterpieces of literature, children never tired of these books. They were read at home, at Sunday school, and at church, but the stories were always fresh. No myth can be more beautiful than the story of the Garden of Eden, no history more interesting than the account of the wanderings and the wars of the Israelites, no tale more captivating than the story of Samson, no heroes greater than Moses and David, and no poetry more thrilling and inspiring than the Psalms of David.

To the boy of forty years ago the personages of the Bible were all real men and women, and though much was incomprehensible he derived pleasure from the reading just as he derived pleasure from rolling out the sonorous lines of Milton, though he had but a vague idea of the meaning of the poet. Still he had mental pictures, if somewhat hazy, of the scenes described in *Paradise Lost* and would become dizzy in contemplating the fall of Satan through "nine times the space that measures day and night."

As one recalls the Bible stories of his childhood there seems to have been much more of detail in them than

appears in a later reading, because, probably, the boy read into them his own visions. The story of the Garden of Eden always afforded much pleasure. He could see the trees always green, the flowers always in bloom, the fruit on every branch, the most beautiful birds and butterflies flitting about and not afraid of boys. The sky was always of the deepest blue and the clouds of the purest white. Everything was fresh and the whole world was new.

Childlike he passed over the tragedy of the flood and had no thought but of enjoyment seeing the waters rising and then sailing away in the ark with all the wild animals to watch and the interest of the unknown land before:

The story of Joseph never lacked interest. He was followed through all his adventures. He was a hero who never disappointed his young readers, except, perhaps, when he treated the wicked brothers so magnanimously.

Then the story of the departure from Egypt, getting their things together, preparing for the long journey, getting away from the hateful Egyptians, and the victory over the proud Pharaoh and his hosts. The song of Miriam was shouted over and over again for the delicious thrill it produced.

Moses was the great hero. He was too great to become familiar in face or figure like Joseph or David. He was all-powerful and every responsibility was on him for protection and food. The boys were free—no school and no chores, seeing something new every day and sleeping in tents at night.

The stories of Joseph, of Samson and David were the favorites. The idyl of Ruth and the drama of Esther were very interesting. So also were the stories of Elijah and Elisha, of Joshua and Gideon. These were real people and the events in which they participated were as real as the later events learned in modern history.

Many of the stories were acted out and the boy bears a scar on his finger which recalls a dramatization of Abraham offering up his son Isaac as a sacrifice in obedience to the divine command.

Too little is made of this literature in our schools. The myths and legends of Greece and Rome, the sagas of Norseland, or the folklore of Germany offer no more suitable reading for childhood than these Bible stories and none can compare with them in moral teaching.

Perhaps few realize how much the Bible meant to the earlier settlers in America and the people of forty and fifty years ago. The Bible literature furnished to them what would otherwise be lacking in their lives—mental pleasure and spiritual uplift. Theirs was a constant struggle for a living. Hardship, want and isolation they had to endure, with little of the joy and sunshine of life. The Christian Sunday and the Bible gave them what they required for mental recreation, soul uplift and inspiration and made possible their development into a great people.

INTERNATIONAL PEACE

BY LARUE C. WATSON, AGRICULTURIST, HILO BOARDING SCHOOL.

"The high cost of living" is a phrase that has been worn so threadbare by constant use recently that we feel inclined to enclose it in quotation marks to hold it together. It is a vital matter to all of us, it has many aspects and we should inquire into all of them. This article treats of only one of the important causes of the present condition.

The average newspaper gives more or less space to a discussion of the causes of high prices, but at the same time it fills both its editorial and news columns with a lot of jingo stuff calculated to arouse national hatred and inflame the military passions of the people. Some editors may do this in ignorance, but many of them do it either in an effort to supply the warped mental appetite of the reading public with the food which it desires or because the building up of a military post or naval station in their community will bring a local demand for merchandise and provisions and increase the business of that community.

What has this to do with education? It is the duty of the schools to create in the rising generation a demand for saner news and to teach both the moral and economic evils of war. Many subjects, such as history, geography, literature, biography, composition, debating, economics and current events, lend themselves to peace instruction. As I look back to my grammar school days of history study I recollect them as one long nightmare of the dates and order of wars and battles, and the glories of military operations and victories. And I was thereby fired with the spirit of militarism and the idea that military glory is the highest goal of ambition.

How much better it would have been to have dwelt on the economic causes and results of wars, to have shown how most wars are caused by selfish personal or national ambition or by blind national hatred, to have exalted the heroes of peace and to have shown the results of war to be tremendous loss of life, commerce, industry, morals, education and the serious deterioration of the physique of the race.

Instead of exclusively lauding George Washington's military genius, why not show him also as the progressive farmer, the statesman of peaceful times and the true advocate of peace who has written among many similar statements, "My first wish is to see this plague to mankind (war) banished from the earth, and, although it is against the profession of arms and would clip the wings of some young soldiers soaring after glory, to see the whole world in peace and the inhabitants striving who should contribute most to the happiness of mankind."

The pupils may be told about the wonders of Napoleon's campaign but why not also impress them with the folly of his selfish ambition and the misdirected

use of his great talents? They might also be given Napoleon's words, spoken when in exile at St. Helena, "The more I study the world the more am I convinced of the inability of brute force to create anything durable."

General Sherman's prowess in war is enlarged upon in the history classes, but how often is the class given his classic statement, "I confess without shame that I am tired and sick of the war. Its glory is all moonshine. It is only those who have never heard a shot nor heard the shrieks and groans of the wounded who cry aloud for more blood, more vengeance, more desolation. War is hell?"

General U. S. Grant has said, "It has been my misfortune to be engaged in more battles than any other American general, but there was never a time during my command when I would not have chosen some settlement by reason rather than the sword," and yet how often is that sentiment of his taught by the side of his war-time accomplishments?

Similar sentiments have been expressed by other military heroes but lack of space forbids their mention.

There is almost unlimited printed material regarding the economic waste of war. General Miles said, "The contrast between war and peace is illustrated by the fact that what has been expended on the Philippines would have put water on every quarter section of arable land in our country where it is required; it would have built for the farmers a splendid system of good roads, or for commerce two ship canals across the Isthmus."

Shooting a big cannon only once costs \$1700, including the deterioration of the weapon. This would build a good home for a working man or give a college education to some ambitious boy.

The battleship North Dakota cost ten million dollars and Chas. L. Bartholomew has figured that this sum would provide for the state of North Dakota a \$25,000 agricultural school and experiment farm in every county with an endowment yielding \$10,500 per year for the maintenance of each school, and still leave more than a million dollars for the endowment of the State Agricultural College.

The United States spends nearly seventy per cent of its annual income on militarism, which means that other departments of our government must suffer. The agricultural and educational departments are very seriously affected. The National Bureau of Education asked the Congress which adjourned in the summer of 1911 for an extra \$75,000 which it greatly needed. It got instead only \$7,600. A few weeks previously our government launched a battleship which carried a main battery of 12 twelve-inch guns, which guns alone cost \$720,000—more than enough to pay the salaries for twelve years of all those employed by the bureau. In

addition she had 21 five-inch guns valued at \$193,000 —more than enough to employ ten field specialists in education for six years. That battleship will cost in repairs in twenty years nearly three and one-half times as much as the Bureau of Education has cost the government in more than forty years.

Thousands refused for education but millions thrown recklessly into militarism! And yet a sane view compels us to agree with Longfellow:

"Were half the power that fills the world with terror,
Were half the wealth bestowed on camps and courts,
Given to redeem the human mind from error,
There were no need of arsenals or forts."

Fellow teachers, we have in our charge those who will control public opinion and legislation tomorrow and it "is up to us" to instil in them right ideas along this line. Aside from the daily infusion of peace ideals much may be made of the national Peace Day, May 18, by having special exercises for the occasion. The United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., has published a booklet, Bulletin 476, containing material for such a program. It is not too early for you to send

for this and other literature and be working up the subject.

Literature and information can be secured from the American Peace Society, 313-314 Colorado Bldg., Washington, D. C., and also from Mr. Robert C. Root, secretary of the Southern California Peace Society, 619 O. T. Johnson Bldg., Los Angeles, California.

The following are some of the many pamphlets which every teacher should have:

"The Mission of the United States in the Cause of Peace," by Hon. David J. Brewer, published by the American Peace Society.

"Militarism as a Cause of the High Living," reprinted by the American Peace Society from the report of the Massachusetts Commission on the Cost of Living.

"The Double Standard in Regard to Fighting" and "War Practically Preventable and Arguments for Universal Peace," both published by the American Association for International Conciliation, Sub-station 84 (407 West 117th St.), New York City.

In this time of "wars and rumors of wars" let us be more diligent than ever in sowing the seed of international brotherhood and peace.

SCHOOL HYGIENE

By T. H. GIBSON.

A short time ago a request was sent to all the principals of the schools in the Territory to report on the number of children suffering from defective vision, defective hearing, adenoids, enlarged tonsils, etc. The following tabulation of the reports was the result of the inquiry:

	Defective Vision	Defective Hearing	Enlarged Adenoids	Enlarged Tonsils	Defective Teeth
Hawaii . . .	574	274	483	633	7,798
Maui . . .	169	134	197	193	3,893
Molokai . . .	10	10	5	2	226
Oahu	440	243	426	293	10,196
Maui	155	72	195	274	3,466

The number of children suffering from defective teeth was based upon a very careful dental survey made by leading dentists in one of the schools of the city. This was taken to be a fair average for all the schools. The nationalities represented in the school were as follows:

Hawaiian	106
Part-Hawaiian	174
American	11
British	1
Korean	4
German	18
Portuguese	160
Japanese	75
Chinese	60
Spanish	3
Other Foreigners	4

This examination showed that 95.3% of the children were suffering from defective teeth in some degree. This seems an alarmingly large percentage, but examination of children's teeth in other cities shows as high

a percentage of diseased teeth,—Berlin 99%, Hanover 89% to 93%, Augsburg 99.4%, Andover, Mass., 96.9%.

The above table shows that 5% of the children of the public schools are suffering from defective sight, 2.7% from defective hearing, 4.8% from adenoids, and 5.1% from enlarged tonsils. These figures, of course, are only approximate and are below the average in other places. From statistics on the mainland, it is claimed that from 15 to 20 per cent of the pupils have defective vision; 10% to 20% defective hearing and 2% to 5% have hearing seriously impaired; 8% suffer from adenoids, and 12½% from diseased tonsils. The above figures show, however, very forcibly the need of a knowledge of the hygiene of the school child on the part of the teacher. No other agency compares with the school in the opportunities offered for improving the health of the race. Among the masses of the people there is a vast amount of ignorance with regard to matters of health and disease and these can be reached only through the school. Doctors and nurses have done and are doing a great deal in places for bettering the conditions of human life, but the development of a healthier, happier and more efficient race depends largely upon the teacher. So a knowledge of child hygiene is of fundamental importance in the training of every teacher.

It is much more important to teach the child how to eat, how to drink, how to sleep, how to breathe and how to live a sanitary life than it is to teach him the three R's. This instruction cannot be given by talks and lectures, but must be taught by continued repetition and through the activities, by forming right habits of living.

POSTAL SAVINGS IN THE SCHOOLS.

By Edwin C. Moore, Principal of the Kaneohe School,
Oahu.

It is very desirable to teach school children the wisdom of saving. It should be taught them that there are many things which they would like to have, and which it is good for them to have, which can only be gotten by saving. A boy may want a soccer ball, which costs two dollars, or a baseball mit, which costs fifty cents or a dollar. He seldom has that much to spare, but often he has five or ten cents, which goes for candy, giving him no lasting satisfaction. It is the same with a girl. It is good for children to form the habit of saving by saving for these little things, when they are young. Later in life there are other things they will need to save for. The young man and young woman should look forward to having their own homes, and save money that they may be able to buy the home furnishings. Perhaps they look forward to owning their own homestead. Sickness comes to nearly all of us sometimes. What a comfort it is to have a little money in the bank to tide us over these trying times! Death will come, we know not when. How much happier we are when we can feel that should it come suddenly there is money in the bank for our loved ones! Then there

is the interest we receive on money in the savings bank. The children should be taught about that.

All of us should save, and it is of the utmost importance that we put our money in a thoroughly honest bank. It is not safe to keep it in the house, for it may be lost, or stolen, and besides it is too easy to get at it and spend it. Many persons have lost their savings because the bank was not an honest one. Fortunately for us, we can now put the money we save in a bank where there is no danger of losing it. The United States government is the bank, and the post office is the place where we can deposit the money.

These are good thoughts to enlarge upon and give the children, adapting the teaching to the age of the pupils.

Only those lessons are remembered by the child which he can make use of in his life. To teach him about saving is not likely to accomplish much good unless the teacher also helps him to save, — that is, makes its possible and easy for the pupil to open an account. The regulations of the postal savings system are so framed that any teacher can virtually become an agency for the deposit of postal savings,—can open a saving fund right in the school,—and the money the children deposit be absolutely safe for it is in the hands of the government.

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selves to a little inconvenience for the good of their pupils, the way to proceed is described below:

Any post office which is a postal savings depository (only a few in the Territory are,—see list below) will sell to anyone postal savings cards and postal savings stamps in any quantity. The cards cost ten cents each, and the stamps ten cents each. A card, with nine stamps pasted on it may be used in one of two ways. It may be turned in at any postal savings post office and a dollar will be paid by the postmaster for it (that is, it may be cashed), or it may be used instead of a dollar in money to open an account or be deposited in an account already opened.

It is best for the one who wishes to open an account to go to the postal savings post office and do so, but it is not necessary. The teacher can open accounts for the children. In the same way, if necessary, the teacher can draw money out for the children; or the children can go to any post office anywhere and the postmaster will have a money order for the amount to be withdrawn sent from the postal savings post office to the depositor's order at his post office. In this case a charge will be made for the money order, but there is no other charge connected with postal savings in any way.

Only children over ten years old can open accounts, but any child, no matter how small, can buy the cards and stamps, and either cash them at the postal savings post office, or ask his teacher to cash them.

A teacher who is willing to help his children in this

way should go to the postal savings post office, have a talk with the postmaster, become familiar with the cards and forms to be used, and buy, with his own money, five or ten dollars worth of stamps and cards. This sum will be tied up as long as the teacher runs the saving fund at his school, for as soon as his stamps and cards are sold he must buy other with the money received for them. In schools where there is more than one teacher it is suggested that the principal take this burden upon himself. For the first ten cent deposit a pupil makes a card is sold to him, and for each subsequent deposit of ten cents a stamp, which he attaches to the card. When nine stamps have been attached the card is worth a dollar, and may be used as already described. The ten cent deposit buys another card.

It is important to remember that the cards and stamps are cash, and if lost the teacher cannot return the money. Be sure and tell the children this.

The postal savings post offices in the Territory of Hawaii are as follows: Oahu—Honolulu, Waipahu, Waialua, Schofield Barracks; Maui—Lahaina, Waiuku, Kahului, Paia; Kauai—Lihue; Hawaii—Hilo, Kohala.

When this plan was submitted to Postmaster Pratt, at Honolulu, he replied in these words: "Your idea of instituting a service of this kind in rural districts is highly commendable, and this office will assist you in every way."

McMaster's United States Histories

Primary Brief School

In these books the people themselves, the progress they have made, the gradual change in their social conditions, have received the greatest emphasis and have given the greatest color to the treatment. At frequent intervals reference is made to the social, economic, and industrial conditions, and striking comparisons are drawn in these respects between the earliest days and the present time. The Primary History gives a brief narrative, simply and interestingly written, touching upon all matters of real importance. The Brief History devotes more attention to the Colonial period and less to the Constitutional period than is afforded in the School History. Footnotes give biographies of the more prominent characters.

Maury's New Geographies

A Two Book Series

Present a maximum number of important and useful facts and a minimum amount of scientific discussion. Industrial and commercial geography receives an unusual amount of attention, both in the text and in the illustrations. The latter are made a much more important feature than is customary, and are accompanied by full descriptions instead of the ordinary brief legends. In the elementary book every lesson is given in the form of an interesting story. In the advanced volume physical geography is treated in connection with each continent and subdivision. In this book a supplement on commercial geography provides a year's course, with material for the making of production and trade maps. The series affords an extremely serviceable knowledge of geography.

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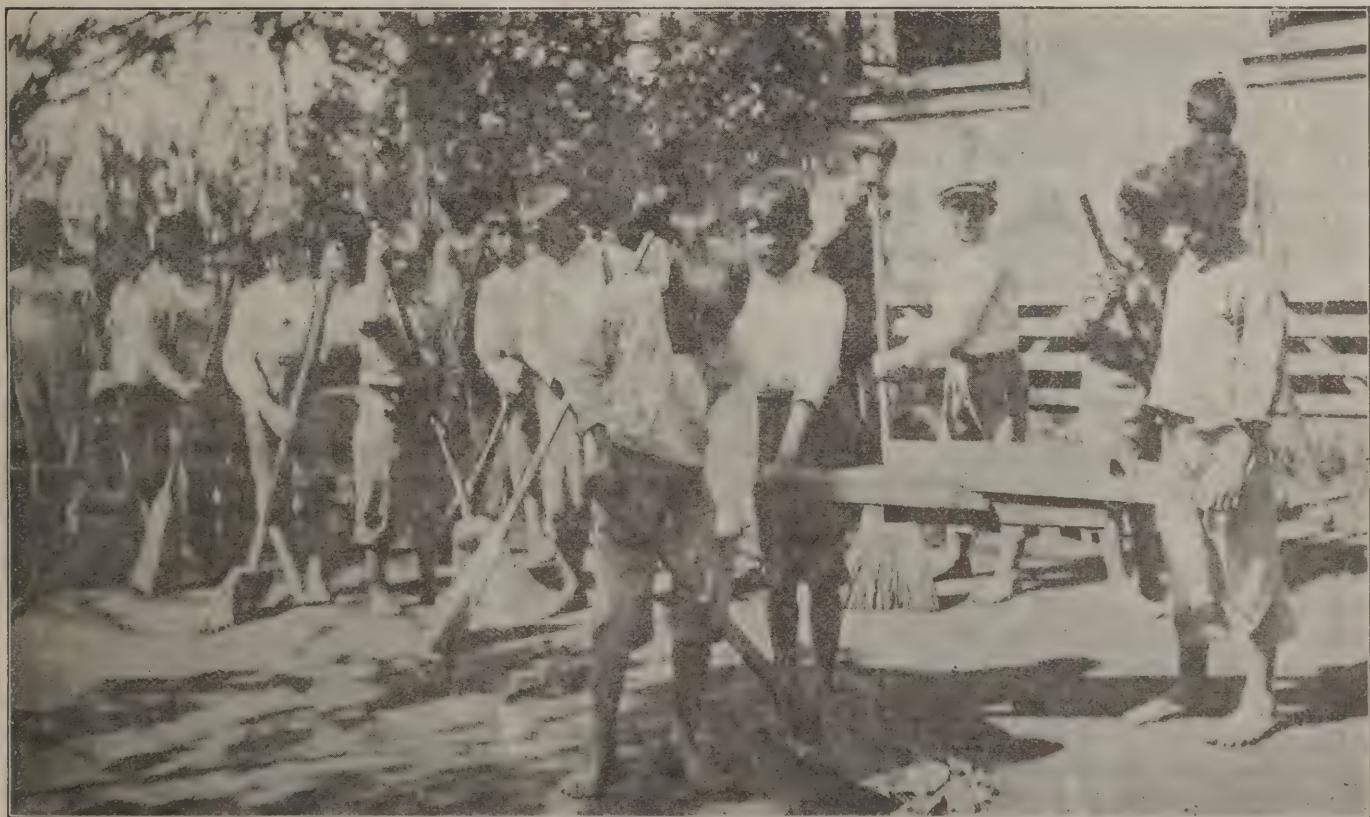
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TRAINING THE BOY
CLEAN-UP PERIOD AT EWA SCHOOL

RECENT EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN MEXICO

By L. S. TOWE, Research Assistant, Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C.

The educational history of Mexico forms one of the most remarkable chapters in the history of Latin civilization on the American Continent. In Mexico the Spanish conquerors adopted a more enlightened policy than in any other portion of the Spanish dominion. It is true of Mexico, as of the Argentine Republic, Chile and Peru, that special attention was directed to higher education. Although primary instruction was almost totally neglected in the far southern countries, the Spanish authorities in Mexico showed some appreciation of the necessity of improving the condition of the native Indians. As early as 1532 the Spanish conquerors had made provision for primary instruction in Mexico City for 1,000 pupils. In 1553 the University of Mexico was opened, offering courses in theology, civil law, canon law, medicine, and the native languages. As in all the higher institutions of learning in the countries of Latin America, the University of Mexico was under the direct control of the Catholic Church, and remained so until the relation was abolished in the struggle between church and state in the sixties. With the confiscation of all ecclesiastical property, the university organization, which had gradually declined until it was hardly more than a mere shadow, disappeared.

The systematic development of public education entered upon a new era with the inauguration of President Juarez. Under the constitution of 1857 the Federal government controls the system of primary education in the Federal district and in the organized territories, but it has no power over primary education within the States. At the time of the formation of the constitution, there was a movement to place the entire system of public instruction under the authority of the Federal government. Sectional feeling at the time was so strong that it was not possible to secure the acceptance of this plan.

There is but little doubt that had the Federal government been able to secure complete control of public education, the system would have made far greater advances during the last half century. This is due primarily to the fact that the revenues and credit of the central government are far in advance of those of the individual States. Furthermore, the fact that the States have failed to develop a distinctive and vigorous political life and that their administrative system is not thoroughly organized makes it difficult for them to secure the expert direction necessary for the growth of a vigorous system of public education.

The magnitude of the problem confronting the country can best be seen from an examination of the data relating to illiteracy. Significant as they are, it is likely that they underestimate rather than exaggerate the degree of illiteracy that prevails.

In the central group of Mexican States, with 6,239,038 inhabitants, but 1,002,692, or about 15 per cent of the total population, can read and write. In the northern group of States, with a population of 1,174,341, but 287,777 can read and write. In the five Gulf States, with a population of 1,756,006, but 280,087 can read and write, and in the States and Territories of the Pacific Coast, of a total population of 4,437,874, but 609,032 can read and write. These figures are taken from the census of 1900. Unfortunately, no trustworthy statistics as to illiteracy are available which would enable us to measure the progress that has been made during the last 10 years.

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

Although the Federal Government exercises no direct control over public education within the States of the Union, there exists throughout the Republic practical uniformity in organization.

Primary instruction includes five years of elementary grades and two years of advanced grades. The course of study in these schools has been carefully worked out, but the greatest obstacles in the way of efficient service is the failure to pay anything approaching adequate compensation to teachers. Even in the Federal District, where salaries are much higher than in the States, the principals of primary schools receive from \$328.50 to \$547.50 per annum, depending upon the degree of preparation and term of service. It is evident that with such low salaries teaching as a profession does not offer much to allure young men and women, and it is not surprising that the Government should find great difficulty in securing competent candidates for the available positions.

TRAINING FOR TEACHERS.

During the past few years a strong effort has been made in all the States, but especially in the Federal District, to improve the training schools for teachers. The improvement has been due in large part to the influence of the National Department of Public Education, and to the example set by the two excellent normal schools of the Federal District. The new building which has been erected for the Men's Normal School is thoroughly equipped and modern in every respect. In order to induce young men to enter the teaching profession the Government has provided liberally for scholarships and stipends. The Normal School for Women in the Federal District occupies an old building which is not adapted to its purposes. In spite of the inadequate accommodations, however, the school is doing excellent work, and compares favorably with most of the normal schools in the United States.

MANUAL, TECHNICAL, AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING.

During the last 10 years the movement for the introduction of manual training into primary schools, both in the Federal Districts and in the States, has acquired considerable force. The late Minister of Public Instruction, Dr. Justo Sierra, as well as the Assistant Secretary, Dr. Ezequiel A. Chavez, saw clearly that the fundamental need of the great mass of the Indian population was the kind of training that would turn the attention of the younger men to the mechanic arts. Mexico lacks a native artisan class. The over-problem in all the Latin-American countries, and is traceable to the continuance of the old Spanish prejudice against trade and commerce. This tendency has been strengthened by the purely dialectic character of the curriculum of the secondary schools, which are molded after the French system. The introduction of manual training, therefore, into the primary schools of the Federal District possessed a significance in Mexico far greater than in many other countries.

The influence of the change in the primary schools of the Federal District has been felt in all the States. Although but a beginning has been made in this direction, the important fact is that emphasis is now being laid on this type of training.

In the matter of vocational training, a beginning has been made in the Federal District, and also in some of the States, notably Chihuahua, but it is true that this movement is still in its infancy. In the Federal District there is an excellent trade school for boys and another for girls.

The school for boys prepares for the following trades: Carpentry, woodworking, ironwork, decorative painting and sculpture, electrical and industrial mechanics. For each of these, special courses are prescribed.

The School of Industrial Arts for Girls includes the following courses: Typewriting, bookkeeping, stenography, sewing, dressmaking, hat making, artificial-flower making, embroidery, lace making, wig making, hair-dressing, and domestic science. In addition there are a number of courses taken by all pupils in natural history, physics, and chemistry. In this school over a thousand pupils are registered. It is the purpose of the Federal authorities to increase the number of these schools as rapidly as the resources of the Government will permit.

Rept. U. S. Comm. Education.

THE BOY AND THE JOB.

The National Association of Corporation Schools, in its bulletin for September, 1914, has published an unusually valuable article on "Selecting Young Men for Particular Jobs." This article gives a classification of the marked characteristics which furnishes a rational basis for the broad selection of young men for particular jobs. This is based on eight years' experience with the cooperative work at the University of Cincinnati.

PEACE PRIZE CONTEST

Under the Auspices of
THE AMERICAN SCHOOL PEACE LEAGUE
OPEN TO PUPILS OF ALL COUNTRIES.

Two sets of prizes, to be known as the Seabury Prizes, are offered for the best essays on one of the following subjects:

1. The Opportunity and Duty of the Schools in the International Peace Movement. Open to Seniors in the Normal Schools.

2. The Influence of the United States in Advancing the Cause of International Peace. Open to Seniors in the Secondary Schools.

Three prizes of seventy-five, fifty and twenty-five dollars will be given for the best essays in both sets.

This contest is open for the year 1915 to the pupils of the secondary and normal schools in all countries.

American Judges.

Charles H. Judd, Director, the School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

David Felmley, President, State Normal University, Normal, Illinois.

Ernest G. Hapgood, Headmaster, Girls' Latin School, Boston, Mass.

Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, State Superintendent of Instruction, Denver, Colorado.

Emory M. Wilson, Principal, Central High School, Washington, D. C.

Charles S. Chapin, Principal, State Normal School, Montclair, New Jersey.

John W. Wayland, Department of History and Social Science, State Normal and Industrial School for Women, Harrisonburg, Virginia.

Miss Adelaide Steele Baylor, Clerk of State Board of Education, Indianapolis, Indiana.

A. J. Cloud, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, California.

European Judges.

Henri La Fontaine, Senator of Belgium, Brussels, Professor of International Law, President of the International Peace Union at Berne.

Ferdinand Buisson, Member of the Chamber of Deputies, Paris, Honorary Professor at the University of Paris, Honorary Director of Primary Education to the Minister of Public Instruction, Paris.

Kirchenrat Kroner, Stuttgart, Germany.

Emile Arnaud, President of the International League of Peace and Liberty, Vice-President of the International Peace Union, President of the Educational Commission of the Universal Peace Congress, Lüzarches.

CONTEST CLOSES MARCH 1, 1915.

Conditions of the Contest.

Essays must not exceed 5,000 words (a length of 3,000 words is suggested as desirable), and must be
(Concluded on Page Seven.)

QUESTIONS REGARDING THE COURSE OF STUDY AND EXAMINATIONS

Since the new course of study was issued, a number of questions, with regard to various phases thereof, have come up. A number of these were brought forward at the meeting of the teachers' association of the Island of Hawaii, while others have come from other sources. A number of these questions are exceedingly useful inasmuch as they give an opportunity to elucidate points which have been the cause of doubts on the part of some teachers. For this reason it seems well that some of these questions, with the answers thereto, be given the widest possible circulation among the teachers.

Q. 1. In the Course of Study, the sixth grade is directed to take the first 47 pages of Kimball's English Grammar and in the seventh grade the *same* book is in the hands of the pupils. Will the sixth grade be required to take examinations on the above subject-matter, or is the grammar examination deferred until the seventh grade?

A. There will be no grammar examination for any grade below the seventh, although the grammar in the written work on subjects in any grade should be marked.

Q. 2. Which Kimball's Grammar is intended, Kimball's English Grammar or Kimball's Elementary English Book II?

A. Kimball's English Grammar, A. B. Company (price 50c.).

Q. 3. Is the study of "The Building of the Ship" to be prolonged the entire year Grade VII?

A. No. This is only the minimum requirement and in grades where that poem has been thoroughly studied no objection will be made to additional work.

Q. 4. Are we at liberty to introduce supplementary reading such as "Old Time Hawaiians," Gulick Health Series, etc., where classes seem to need such reading and are willing to buy the books? (I have in mind a fifth grade, as that is where I have especially felt the need of the printed page.)

A. No objection should ever be made to restrict any of the pupils from doing as much supplementary reading as they desire. However, many of the pupils' parents can barely afford to buy the authorized texts and no permission can be given to teachers to ask pupils to purchase additional books.

Q. 5. When, as sometimes occurs, a class is ready for a new grade in January, will the Department of Public Instruction send us an examination upon application? (I have in mind a class that may be able to begin the sixth grade by January.)

A. Classes may be promoted by the principal of the school when he feels that the pupils can do the work of the next grade. Of course, they will be expected to pass the June examination of that grade.

Q. 6. Is the "Time Allotment" Schedule to be followed literally or can each principal decide when a different division seems advisable? For example, a backward arithmetic class needs more time than one that is up to the average. Should not such a class be given some extra time in arithmetic?

A. To permit all the principals to make a different division of time would be merely to go back to the old schedules which were found to be unsatisfactory. In cases where the principal feels that, for many reasons, more time should be allotted a class in a certain subject, permission can be obtained from the supervising principal.

Q. 7. What is to be the nature of the uniform examination for first and second grades? These grades are not supposed to do original written work to any extent.

A. As yet no examinations have been made out, but all primary grade teachers can be assured that the questions and work will be adapted to the mental development and scholastic attainments of their pupils.

Q. 8. In Grade VII, will the December examination include Asia, Africa, and Australia? I ask in behalf of a seventh grade teacher who is giving some general work on the three topics, but is teaching Asia in detail.

A. See circular letter in reference to Geography in the upper grades. (Sent out November 17, 1914.)

Q. 9. Is there any objection to children of the third or subsequent grades having the "Champion Speller" in their hands, if they are willing to buy it?

A. See answer to No. 4. No objection is made to the encouraging of pupils to own numerous books, but permission cannot be given to require pupils to buy books not authorized.

Q. 10. What music and how much of it is to be taught from the second grade upwards? The Course of Study only provides for the first grade.

A. The outline in music in the Course of Study is for the first and second grades. In the grades above, the subject-matter in music is left to the discretion of the principals and teachers. The amount of time for music is definitely indicated in the Course of Study under the "allotment of time."

Q. 11. How may the teacher divide the 30 minutes allowed daily for Geography, Nature Study, etc., when she has a fifth and sixth grade to teach? Each grade has a different geography book to read and learn from, and the Course of Study specifies different work for each. The teacher, however, is expected to promote both grades in competition with another teacher who is fortunate in having only one grade.

A. The time allotment is not really intended for the class room with miscellaneous grades, and the time-table must necessarily be worked out by the teacher and principal. The teacher is not in "competition" with any one and her failures and successes are not to be compared with another's. In passing on the examination results the Department takes such circumstances into consideration.

Q. 12. How far is a principal who has six assistants responsible for the school work of those assistants, when no time is allowed him or her for supervision?

A. A principal may inspect the work of his assistants in their plan-books, the pupils' written work, the registers, and their general work in the school, outside of school hours. Supervision is not necessarily only attendance at a recitation. If at any time a principal feels that his presence is needed in any room, he should supervise the work.

Q. 13. Why aren't the school supplied with sewing materials this year?

A. Many schools have been supplied with sewing materials, where sewing was started *de novo*. Teachers must prove that they can conduct the work satisfactorily and efficiently as this Department does not feel that it should supply material to be given away freely. The sewing should be disposed of at cost and this fund used for new material.

Q. 15. Whom should one write to in the Department in reference to the Course of Study?

A. All communications should be addressed to the Department.

Q. 16. Should all examination papers be kept on file during a child's entire course or until he has passed into a higher grade?

A. Papers should be kept for one year from the time they were written.

Q. 17. Will history examinations be given in the fifth grade?

A. Only an examination on history stories will be given. (See stories in Course of Study.)

Q. 18. Is half credit too much to give in concrete problems where the principle is correct, but the answer wrong?

A. No. A correct principle deserves a passing mark, but in arithmetic the answer, too, should be correct to obtain a passing mark.

Q. 19. When an abstract example in arithmetic shows a knowledge of the process, but an inaccurate performance of the same, should partial credit be given?

A. Yes. A passing mark would be too high, though.

"When correcting papers, I find it a good method to read the answer first with subject-matter in mind; then to read it again, calculating the number of additional credits to be deducted for spelling, construction, English, neatness, etc."—Miss Josephine Deyo, Hilo, Hawaii.

THE EXAMINATION RULES.

At a meeting of the board of examiners of the public schools of the Territory the schedule of examinations was arranged and the rules under which they are to be conducted were agreed upon. The board consists of Inspector General George S. Raymond, chairman; Mrs. Mary W. Gunn, supervising principal of Oahu; Miss Ida Macdonald of the Normal School and M. O. Bairos, vice principal of the McKinley High School.

The examinations, which will be for the fall term, are to begin December 9 and continue through December 11.

SCHEDULE OF EXAMINATIONS.

Fifth, Sixth, and Seventh Grade term examinations.

December 9—Arithmetic, 9:00-10:30; Hygiene and Sanitation, 11:00-12:00; Language, Fifth and Sixth Grades, 12:30-2:00; Grammar, Seventh Grade, 12:30-2:00.

December 10—Geography, 9:00-10:30; History, Sixth and Seventh Grades, 11:00-12:30; Fifth Grade, stories.

Eighth Grade term examinations.

December 9—Grammar, 9:00-11:00; Spelling, 11:30-12:00; Hygiene and Sanitation, 12:30-2:00.

December 10—Arithmetic, 10:00-12:00; Composition, 12:30-2:00.

December 11—History, 10:00-12:00; Geography, 12:30-2:00.

The rules under which the examinations are to be conducted were made with a view of insuring fairness to the pupils as well as to insure a uniform method of conducting this important work. Following is a list of the rules:

REGULATIONS GOVERNING EXAMINATIONS.

- No envelope is to be opened before the day and hour designated for the examination, and then only in the presence of the pupils, after the attention of the pupils has been called to this fact.

- Teachers in charge of examinations are not to leave the room during the examinations. The matter of whether teachers should be transferred to take charge is left to the discretion of the principal, who is responsible for the proper conducting of these examinations.

- Pupils are expected to use ink. In the eighth grade this is compulsory. In marking papers, a passing credit should be given for a correct fact or principle and correct work and answer, but some amount must be deducted for poor English, incorrect spelling, lack of punctuation and capitalization, or errors in grammar as well as for lack of neatness, disorderly arrangement and careless writing. Each incorrect word in spelling, each problem or example, and each answer in any of the subjects must be marked with the percentage allowed.

- Papers are to be marked by the principal, who may, however, employ on this work his assistants, but he will be responsible for all markings.

5. The papers must be kept on file in the schools. These papers and the markings thereof will be examined subsequently by the supervising principal and by the inspector general, as the correctness of the markings and the results of the pupils' work will be used as a factor in determining the standard of the teachers.

6. Teachers marking papers must sign them thus: "Marked by _____." (Use full signature.)

SPECIAL FORMS REQUIRED.

7. The names of all the pupils taking the examination, together with their respective per cents, must be made out on a special form and transmitted to the office of the department. Each pupil's average is to be entered in the register after the pupil's name.

8. Teachers are not to answer any questions from the pupils which would assist the pupils in doing the work expected of them.

9. The passing mark in each subject will be seventy-five per cent. At the final examination in June this will be required for promotion or a diploma. An exception will be allowed, however, in the case of pupils who fail only in two subjects, with a mark of not less than sixty per cent in each of these, provided the total of the examination marks of such pupils shows an average of seventy-five per cent or more and provided further that their term reports show that satisfactory work has been done throughout the year. In these term reports credit should be given for work done in the vocational subjects (carpentry, sewing, gardening, cooking, housekeeping, etc.).

10. Promotion of pupils in the December and April examinations is left to the discretion of the principal and teachers, but no pupil should be promoted unless he has shown that he can satisfactorily do the year's work. Pupils need not be demoted for failing on the term examinations in December and April.

11. Do not report more than one grade on any one report form.

12. Any infringement of these rules will be a cause for dismissal.

VOCATIONAL WORK ON HAWAII.

Owing to the labor involved in securing data necessary for the preparation of the budget of estimates for the coming biennial period, which must be submitted to the Board of Commissioners at its meeting early next month, it has been found impossible to get ready for this issue the article on vocational work in the local schools, which it was hoped would be ready for appearance in this issue. Furthermore, the Department has not as yet received from all the Islands the material needed for a comprehensive statement of the present standing of the vocational work throughout the group.

Among the letters which are particularly interesting is one from Mr. Ernest G. Allen, who has charge of the

vocational work on the Island of Hawaii. While Mr. Allen heretofore limited his activity to the town of Hilo, he has this term taken up work in several of the big schools outside of Hilo, and he plans to still further extend his sphere of influence. A copy of his letter follows:

Box 523, Hilo, Hawaii,
November 17, 1914.

Mr. H. W. Kinney,
Superintendent of Public Instruction,
Honolulu, T. H.

Dear Sir:—In your letter of November 14th, you asked me for a statement covering the vocational work done on this island up to date.

Owing to the fact that the funds set aside by the last legislature were not available at the beginning of the last school year, special work along this line was not begun until January of this year.

As it seemed best to the Department that the work should be well established in some of the larger schools before extending it to all schools, I was sent to Hilo to begin work in the Hilo High School and the Hilo Union School.

One half of the basement of the high school building was set aside for a shop and the other half for a kitchen and sewing room. The boys in the carpentry classes fitted these rooms up with work benches, tool room, tables, shelves for dishes, and other necessary articles. They also ceiled the shop so that the regular class-room work in other parts of the building would not be disturbed and also to give the room a more finished appearance.

Classes were organized in sewing, cooking, carpentering and gardening. The Department furnished the initial equipment and materials and since then the work has become self-supporting in the cooking and carpentering departments and nearly so in sewing and gardening. This year there is every prospect that the gardening will show a profit.

The cooking classes prepared meals and served lunches to the pupils and while it was the purpose of these classes to teach the pupils how to prepare a variety of wholesome dishes which would be useful to them in their homes and to teach them the nutritive and economic values of foods rather than to make a large profit, nevertheless, the Domestic Science Department sold during the last two terms of the ast school year \$615.54 worth of lunches and realized a net profit o about \$60.00. Up to November first of this term \$155.13 worth of lunches were sold. The expenditures were \$133.30, leaving a profit of \$21.83. Financial statements have been sent to your office from time to time and I am sending you another covering the work of this term.

In conducting the classes in carpentry, it was my purpose to teach the boys to make useful and practical articles such as tables, taborets, meat safes, dish shelves,

magazine racks, chicken coops and houses, benches, book racks, screens, flower stands, etc. The boys have also attended to the general repairs around the building and thus at least \$100.00 was saved to the county.

The high school agricultural pupils were given plots of ground on the high school premises where they raised vegetables and flowers. They were required to keep a record of their work and to pass an examination on a short course in Agricultural Botany. The pupils from the Union School cultivated plots of land given to us by the experiment station. They took a great interest in this work, many of the pupils coming to work in the gardens after 2 o'clock and working until after 4:00.

The work has been extended this term as fast as the county has been able to provide accommodations. We now have very good shop rooms at Honomu and Pa-paikou. These schools have been provided with tools and materials and the boys are now making work benches, board walks, tool racks, etc.

Home gardening and poultry clubs have been established at Honomu and Olaoa. I find that where the work is carried on at home by the pupil, both the pupil and the parents become interested and the child's garden becomes a matter of family pride.

Some of the boys from the High School have taken over the entire plot of ground which the Experiment Station owns near the cemetery and they are working it for a share of the profits. They are keeping an account of the cost of production, the time spent in cultivation, and the returns realized from their crops. They are taking an interest in the experiment and I believe that they will realize a good return for their labor.

The cooking of simple lunches has been inaugurated at the Union School and the experiment is meeting with much success. Five cent lunches are served there three times a week. Cocoa and a bread and butter sandwich, soup and crackers, stew with rice and crackers are each served once a week. The regular teachers do this work, each serving twice during a term—once as buyer and helper and once as teacher in charge. A number of the pupils from the upper grades are delegated to help with the lunch and Miss Deyo tells me that they are so interested in the work that there is great rivalry for places on the lunch committee.

In sewing, Miss Deyo reports that "in the town schools there are 225 sewing and in the 'feeders' about 75, making about three hundred who are really making things. (This does not count the paper-sewing nor the sewing on bits of cloth to learn stitches as is done in several second grade classes)." In the high school about thirty-five are taking sewing. In addition to their regular sewing, they have made seventy-five garments, including dresses, skirts and waists for the Belgian refugee children. The material for this work has been given by the pupils and others. We were glad to do this work as it gave the pupils practical experience in sewing.

Vocational education has been well received on this island and I believe that there is a genuine demand for this kind of training, especially in the larger schools where there are a number of pupils in the upper grades. The work in Hilo has progressed to such a stage that it seems that it would be wise to build a larger shop on the high school grounds and to equip it with some modern machinery such as a band saw, turning lathe, circular saw and planer. I am confident that a large percentage of the boys in the high school would like to continue their course in carpentering if such a shop were established. It would increase the value of our vocational work in that it would furnish the boys with a training which would equip them for making a living.

Very respectfully yours,

ERNEST G. ALLEN.

Teachers who have done successful vocational work in their schools are requested to send the Department information in regard to their work. At the same time, criticism and suggestions for the betterment or further extension thereof will be very welcome.

(Concluded from Page 3.)

written, preferably in typewriting, on one side only of paper, 8x10 inches, with a margin of at least 1 1/4 inches. Manuscripts not easily legible will not be considered.

The name of the writer must not appear on the essay, which should be accompanied by a letter giving the writer's name, school, and home address, and sent to Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, Secretary, American School Peace League, 405 Marlborough Street, Boston, Mass., not later than March 1, 1915. Essays should be mailed flat (not rolled).

The award of the prizes will be made at the Annual Meeting of the League in July, 1915.

Information concerning literature on the subject may be obtained from the Secretary.

SUCCESSFUL CONTESTANTS IN LAST YEAR'S CONTEST.

Normal School Set.

First Prize—Miss Emma Feldbaum, State Normal School, Trenton, New Jersey.

Second Prize—Miss Ida L. Williamson, State Normal School, Trenton, New Jersey.

Third Prize—Mr. S. J. Skinner, State Normal School, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

Secondary School Set.

First Prize—Miss Helen Mouat, Wadleigh High School, New York City.

Second Prize—Miss Elisabeth Sappenfield, High School, Evansville, Indiana.

Third Prize—Mr. Max Artur Jordan, K. Eberhard-Ludwigs-Gymnasium, Stuttgart, Germany.

Hawaii Educational Review

A monthly periodical devoted to the dissemination of educational thought and progress, particularly as adapted to the Territory of Hawaii. Not issued in July and August.

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Henry Walsworth Kinney, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Editor for the Department.

Vaughan MacCaughey, Professor in Charge of Extension Work, Editor for the College.

THE WAR.

DR. MAXWELL'S ADVICE.

The advice of Dr. Maxwell to the principals of schools in New York City is so admirable that it should reach every principal in the State and every school. As much of it as space permits is here given:

"On the negative side we should say to our teachers: You must not express any opinion regarding the causes or the issues of the war that will give offence to any children in the public schools. The reason is obvious. Our public schools are, as they have well been called, the melting-pot into which the children of all nations are cast, in order that they may emerge self-respecting, self-reliant American citizens, tolerant of the opinions and respecting the rights of others, even as they expect their opinions and their rights to be tolerated and respected. To bring about this end in our public school work is paramount to every other consideration. Our constant aim should be to clear the minds and hearts of our children of old-world hatreds and prejudices, whether these hatreds and prejudices are racial, social, or religious. * * * Our aim is to have Teuton and Slav, Saxon and Celt, Greek and Italian, live together as neighbors, in peace and in quiet, with mutual respect, with mutual forbearance, and with mutual helpfulness. Sublime is the undertaking to strip millions of children, in whom the lust to strike the racial enemy is innate, of their inborn propensities to strife. Therefore, a teacher who, before her pupils, assails the Austrians or the Belgians, the English or the French, or the Germans, or the Russians, or the Servians, is guilty of two heinous offences. The first is an offence against a child. He may wound the sensibilities of a deeply sensitive boy or girl, and this, as I have often told you, is the teacher's cardinal sin. He offends against our national patriotism, which was and is, to make one, on American soil, the children of all the earth's nations—to wipe out and not to perpetuate racial prejudices."

And on the positive side:

"1. The facts should be treated simply as facts. European civilization is passing through an earthquake, a volcanic eruption, from which, we pray, it will emerge purified as by fire. Our children should not be allowed to form imperfect or prejudiced ideas of great events that will influence the development of civilization until the last moment of recorded time. In teaching the geography of Europe, and in the hours devoted to current events, the large military movements should be carefully and accurately followed with the aid of maps. Every teacher should prepare herself to teach this subject accurately. The chief reliance should be placed, however, on encouraging children to gather facts accurately for themselves and to record them, under judicious criticism, on maps of their own making.

"2. No occasion should be neglected to impress upon our children the horrors of war—not merely the immediate horrors of the battlefield, but the collateral horrors that follow in the wake of war—the orphaning of tender children, the widowhood of loving wives, old age deprived of its natural support, the flower of a country cut off in its youth, the poverty, the disease, the unspeakable anguish of mind and body. And all this to the end that our children, to whom, in years to come, may be committed the issues of peace or war for our beloved country, may learn that war is so dreadful a thing that it should never be entered upon lightly, but only as a last resort in defence against national peril or in support of some fundamental principle of transcendent value to humanity, as, for instance, the abolition of slavery with its horrors worse than war."

Every State College has three great obligations to its constituency---

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THE WORK OF THE COLLEGE OF HAWAII

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THE BOTANICAL WORK OF THE COLLEGE OF HAWAII

By Vaughan MacCaughey.

The College of Hawaii has an unique location with reference to the all-the-year-round study of the biological sciences. The island of Oahu, upon which the city of Honolulu is situated, is a volcanic doublet, skirted in part by a wide coral plain and reef. The Waianae Range, which forms the one portion of the doublet, is of much greater age than the recent Koolau Range, which forms the other. The Waianae Range includes a striking variety of biological zones, from extensive arid plains and valleys, to boggy, foggy summits. The Koolau Range comprises a remarkable series of beautiful valleys, gorges, knife-edged ridges, and peaks covered with dense rain-forest. Between these two ranges that make the main skeleton of the island—originally two islands—is an elevated central plateau, deeply dissected by several large gorges. The coastal plain that skirts the island is diversified as to geologic formations and plant societies, and in certain districts is studded with conspicuous secondary volcanic cones of tuff and ashes.

From the standpoint of collegiate studies, all of these regions are quite accessible; many of them are within half-day's walk, and the most remote can be reached within a day. In addition to the system of public roads, plantation roadways, wagon trails, and foot trails, there are two railway lines, a number of stage lines, and motor car services. There are also available a number of excellent maps, including trail maps. Food supplies and drinking water are obtainable throughout the island. It is therefore a relatively simple matter to make an expedition to any given region, to transport needful scientific apparatus and equipment, and to continue the

studies and collecting for as long a period as is desirable.

There is perhaps no other region in the world, similarly blessed with all of the conveniences of modern civilized society, where so many widely differing types of tropical environment are so easily available within small compass. Within a radius of half a dozen miles of the College campus occur, for example, the following well-defined ecological districts:

1. *Manoa Valley*—one of the largest of the Oahu valleys, with a large amphitheater of erosion; broad, flat floor; and precipitous, ridged walls.
2. *Waikiki Flats*—extensive coastal plain, artificially flooded, and planted with various wet-land crops.
3. *Kaimuki Region*—secondary volcanic crater, with lava flows and volcanic debris.
4. *Extinct Craters* of Diamond Head, Punchbowl, Round-top, Sugar-loaf, Tantalus, and Kaau.
5. *Coral Reefs*—lagoons and fringing reefs, along the entire southern coast of Oahu; rich in marine life.
6. *Waialae*—an arid portion of the coastal plain, with tongues into the valleys adjacent.
7. *Koolau Range*—average elevation 2200 feet, with dense indigenous rain-forest.
8. *Introduced plantings* — Eucalyptus, Prosopis, etc., in extensive groves and woodlands.
9. *Strand regions*—comprising coral, lava, and tufa beaches.
10. *Valleys and streams*—Moanalua, Kalihi, Nuuanu, Pauoa, Makiki, Manoa, Palolo, Waialae, etc.
11. *Foothills and ridges*—eroded remnants of the original Koolau volcanic dome.

12. *Caverns and "lava tubes"*—formed chiefly through former volcanic action.

13. *Deep Sea*—at a relatively short distance from the shore line.

This list is not complete nor detailed, but it will serve to indicate the unique variety of life-conditions and habitats that occur within easy reach of the College.

Not only is this remarkably varied region quite available for college work and investigation, but it is also accessible *every day in the year*, due to the charming climatic conditions of Hawaii. The absence of a winter season, the entire absence of snow and frost, the great rarity of storms, and the balmy quality of the showers, make it possible to conduct field studies on any day of the college year. There is no dormant or leafless season; plant life flourishes throughout the year, and field observations and collecting suffer no abrupt changes because of seasonal inclemencies.

The natural background of the College thus affords an unrivalled out-door laboratory. It is the policy and practice of the botanical instruction of the College to utilize, so far as is practicable, this natural background. Field work holds an important place in both elementary and advanced instruction. The abundance of fresh material, easily obtainable, adds to the effectiveness of all of the biological instruction.

The richness of the indigenous plant life is supplemented by an almost bewildering variety of introduced plants, that have been brought in at various times from all parts of the world. The gardens and private estates of Honolulu contain a great many rare and beautiful trees, shrubs, vines, and herbaceous plants; and these, almost without exception, are available for inspection and study.

The botanical staff of the College consists of a professor of botany and a botanist. The professor of botany has the general instructional work; the botanist is curator of the herbarium, and in the future may offer advanced courses in systematic botany.

EQUIPMENT.

The botanical rooms are located in the main building of the College, and comprise a large laboratory, in which all elementary classes meet; a large herbarium room; an office; and several smaller work rooms. A slat-house, or shade house, is being adapted for laboratory work in plant physiology. The library includes a good series of standard texts and reference books, and files of important botanical periodicals. The libraries of the Territorial Bureau of Agriculture and Forestry, the Hawaii Experiment Station, the Bernice Pauahi Bishop Museum, the Sugar-Planters' Association Experiment Station, and the Library of Hawaii, are also available for reference work.

The herbarium contains the most complete collection in the world of the indigenous flora of Hawaii. It includes a large number of type specimens, and many other specimens identified by specialists. The series representing the woody plants is unusually complete.

During 1913-14 Mr. Rock, the botanist, visited various museums of Europe, studied the Hawaiian material therein, and secured exchange specimens of great scientific value.

The botanical laboratory is furnished with work tables, lockers, cabinets, reagent and supply cases, electric lamps, tap and distilled water, and numerous gas-burners. Stereopticon projection is available at any time.

The microscope equipment comprises a series of excellent microscopes, including demonstration, projection, portable, photo-micrographic, research, and elementary instruments. Accessories include Abbe camera lucidas; micrometers of several types; spectro-micrographic equipment; stages, and series of Leitz, Zeiss, Bausch and Lomb, and Spencer lenses. For photomicrography there is a large Bausch and Lomb horizontal camera.

For work in bacteriology, the laboratory is furnished with sterilizers, incubators, refrigerator, water-baths, paraffine-baths, imbedding oven, centrifuges microtomes, balances, filtration apparatus, a large stock of chemicals, stains, and reagents; and supplies of all requisite glassware.

Standard apparatus for experimental work in plant physiology, as designed by Ganong, Detmer, and Dey Rolles is provided, together with materials for the construction of original apparatus, and for the study of plants in aquaria, thermostats, and other control devices.

Photographic equipment consists of an 8x10 enlarging and reducing camera; several portable cameras, and accessories.

For field work, the department has collecting cans and cases, and Kueffel and Esser field equipment.

Illustrative material is used abundantly in all courses. In addition to freshly collected material, which is available at all seasons, there are special collections of algae and lichens, wood-sections by Hough, photo-micrographs by Weale; series of commercial woods; drugs derived from plants; spices, nuts, grains, fibers, vegetable oils and gums, and other economic products; a series of Dey Rolle models in staff; and paleobotanical specimens.

Wall charts by Wolff-Maage, Engleeder, Goering, Kny, and others supplement the growing collection of lantern slides and photographs. For geographical studies there is an 18-inch globe, wall maps and a series of excellent atlases.

COURSES.

- Principles of Botany.* The fundamental principles of plant morphology and physiology. A survey of the chief plant groups, with field and laboratory studies of representative types. The evolutionary process is traced through the plant series. Special studies of representatives of angiosperm families, indigenous and introduced. The physiological processes and phenomena of plant-life.

Students registering for this course must provide themselves with special laboratory and field note books, Coulter, Barnes, Cowles' "Text-book of Botany," Vol. 1, and Setchell's "Laboratory Practice for Beginners in Botany."

Lectures, laboratory and field work, recitations and assignments. Required of Freshmen in Science and Agriculture. First semester, 3 credits (one laboratory period, one field period and one discussion period per week).

Professor MacCaughey.

2. *Principles of Botany.* A survey of the ecological relationships of roots, leaves and stems; studies in the reproduction and dispersal of plants; plant geography, paleobotany and economic botany; evolution.

Courses 1 and 2 form a single general survey of the large and vital facts of botany. They are designed to give the student a working knowledge of the subject, and afford a basis for further study or research. Particular emphasis is given to field work.

Students must provide themselves with Coulter, Barnes, Cowles "Text-book of Botany," Vol. II. Other equipment as for Course 1.

Lectures, laboratory and field work, recitations and assignments. Required of Freshmen in Science and Agriculture. Second semester, 3 credits. Prerequisite—Botany 1.

Professor MacCaughey.

3. *Dendrology.* A survey of the structure, classification, and life histories of timber trees, from the standpoint of Hawaiian and North American forest conditions; studies of structure as affecting the properties of woods; geographical distribution of timber trees, rate of reproduction, and relation of these to lumber production; the forest flora and fauna; ecological factors, and their influence upon the forest.

Particular attention is given in field and laboratory to the commercial indigenous and imported timbers of Hawaii.

Students registering for this course must provide themselves with special field and laboratory note-books, and Stone's "Timbers of Commerce."

In addition to the regular field and laboratory work, attendance is required upon one all-day field trip. Required of Seniors in C. E. first semester, 2 credits. (Alternates with Course 4; given in 1915-16.)

Professor MacCaughey.

3. *General Bacteriology.* The lectures cover the field of general bacteriology, emphasizing economic features, especially in relation to industrial processes, and to the public health; systematic studies of families and important genera; detailed surveys of the morphologic and physiologic characters of representative pathogenic and non-pathogenic species. The keys of Chesterare used in laboratory work. Text: Jordan, "General Bacteriology." Botany 1 and 2 form a desirable ground-work for this course. Three three-hour laboratory periods per week. Moore, "Laboratory Ex-

ercises in Bacteriology." Required of Juniors in Science, Agriculture, and C. E. First semester, 3 credits. (Alternates with course 3; not given in 1915-16.)

Professor MacCaughey and —

6. *Plant Physiology.* A laboratory and discussion course, with studies of physiologic activities of selected plants. Field studies of the physiologic activities of selected plants. Field studies of the physiologic aspects of plant ecology; effects of artificial environment conditions; quantitative studies of nutrition, respiration, growth, and movement; the physiology of reproduction; the significance of tropisms; methods of obtaining precise data; tabulation and interpretation of data; the correct usage of apparatus, principles of control, construction of measurement and control devices. Laboratory work is supplemented by reading assignments which culminate in the preparation of a report. Text: Duggar, "Plant Physiology." First semester. (Alternates with course 7; offered in 1915-16.)

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7. *Plant Morphology.* A field and laboratory course, covering structural studies of some selected group of plants. Field work; collection and preservation of material; gross and microscopic examination; the important elements of plant structures, from the viewpoint of their development, functions; observations and records of anatomical variations significance of species, varieties, mutants, etc.; studies of organography, ecologic field work; modifications of roots, stems, leaves, and floral structures; pollination devices, dissemination devices, protective devices, etc. First semester, 1 or 2 credits. Open only to Juniors and Seniors who have had Botany 1 and 2. (Alternates with course 6, not offered in 1915-16.)

Professor MacCaughey.

9. *Research.* Nature of work arranged upon consultation. Open only to Seniors in good standing who show sufficient preparation and ability to carry on studies of an investigational nature.

In addition to the courses described above, one or more new courses in systematic botany, with particular reference to the Hawaiian flora, are to be offered in 1915.

SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS CIVIC SECRETARIES.

Two Wisconsin towns have definitely adopted the plan of making the school principal the civic secretary and pay him for this service. Both principals started the season by arranging a series of meetings at which all local candidates for election appeared to present their claims upon the votes of the people, and also a series of meetings at which the constitutional amendments on which the people were to vote in November were presented and discussed. Both men were aided in their new duties by the extension department of the University of Wisconsin.

BOOKS ON INTERNATIONALISM

The following list of books, periodicals, and pamphlets is a selection from the large literature of internationalism made for the purpose of assisting librarians, teachers, and others to follow the progress of the movement for international peace. Books intended to arouse and foster sentiment as well as careful studies of underlying principles have been included.

The material has been selected chiefly from the fields indicated by the three Divisions of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, viz., Intercourse and Education; Economics and History; and International Law.

For the benefit of public libraries whose funds are limited, an asterisk has been placed before the titles of books, etc., which should be acquired first as a nucleus for a larger collection; and it should be noted that a considerable amount of useful literature can be had without cost by writing to the addresses given under the heading Pamphlets.

A library might well begin its collection with the following publications:

1. Year-book of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.
2. The Peace Year-book.
3. Pamphlets issued by
 - (a) American Association for International Conciliation.
 - (b) American Peace Society.
 - (c) World Peace Foundation.
 - (d) Bureau International Permanent de la Paix.
 - (e) Verband fur Internationale Verstandigung.
4. Periodicals.
 - (a) Advocate of Peace, Washington, D. C.
 - (b) The Arbitrator, London, England.
 - (c) Die Friedens-warte, Berlin, Germany, and Vienna, Austria.
 - (d) La Paix par le Droit, Paris, France.

GENERAL.

PERRIS, GEORGE H.

A short history of war and peace. New York, H. Holt & Co., 1911.

12o. vi, 256 p. \$50.

"The book is extremely interesting and instructive and contains the condensation of an immense amount of information in a small space, and—what is rarer—in a very readable form."—Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, September, THE ARBITER IN COUNCIL. (By F. W. Hirst)—New York, The Macmillan Co., 1906.

8o. vi, 567 p. \$2.25.

Report of an imaginary seven days' conference on war and peace.

"The subjects discussed are the causes and consequences of war, modern warfare, private war and the duel, cruelty, the federation of the world, arbitration, the political economy of war, and Christianity and war."—Book Review Digest.

BUTLER, NICHOLAS MURRAY.

The international mind; an argument for the judicial settlement of international disputes. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912.

12o. xii, 121 p. \$75.

"The international mind is nothing else than that habit of thinking of foreign relations and business, and that habit of dealing with them, which regard the several nations of the civilized world as friendly and co-operating equals in aiding the progress of civilization, in developing commerce and industry and in spreading enlightenment and culture throughout the world."

CHANNING, WILLIAM E.

Discourses on War. With an introduction by Edwin D. Mead. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1903.

8o. lxi, 229 p. \$60.

"The present time is peculiarly one when the press and pulpit and people of England and America need to heed the lessons which Channing taught."—Edwin D. Mead.

CHITTENDEN, HIRAM M.

War and Peace. A present duty and a future hope. Chicago, A. C. McClurg & Co., 1911.

8o. 273 p. \$1.00.

"A thoughtful, well-reasoned and comprehensive discussion of the evils of war and a standing army, by an officer of the U. S. Army."—A. L. A. Booklist, May, 1911.

CRANE, WILLIAM L.

The passing of war. A study in things that make for peace. 2d ed. London, Macmillan & Co., 1912.

8o. xliv, 302 p. \$2.50.

Seeks to combine the moral argument for peace with recent economic arguments, in order to give them strength and inspiration.

GULLIVER, LUCILE.

The friendship of nations. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1912.

8o. 293 p. \$60.

For boys and girls.

LYNCH, FREDERICK.

The peace problem. The task of the twentieth century. New York, F. H. Revell Co., 1911.

8o. 127 p. \$75.

"We especially recommend this prophetic volume to Christian ministers and to students in American colleges and universities."—Independent, April 27, 1911.

MEAD, LUCIA A.

Swords and ploughshares; or, the supplanting of the system of war by the system of law. With a foreword by Baroness von Suttner. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1912.

12o. xiv, 249 p.

\$1.50.

"Her argument against the spread of militarism is prompted not only by a high ethical conception of the relation of man to man and of nation to nation, but by economic expediency and a common-sense view of the possibilities of development for a nation if emancipated from the debasing fear of its neighbor and the drain on its resources for the maintenance of armies and navies in competition with the growth of the military equipment of its rivals."—Publishers' Weekly, December 14, 1912.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR JUDICIAL SETTLEMENT OF INTERNATIONAL DISPUTES.

Proceedings of second national conference. Cincinnati, Ohio, November 7-8, 1911. Edited by Theodore Marburg, Secretary, Baltimore, Md.

8o. xii, 216 p.

\$50.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRD AMERICAN PEACE CONGRESS, held in Baltimore, Md., May 3-6, 1911. Edited by Eugene A. Noble, chairman of publications committee.

8o. xxxvii, 504 p.

\$75.

THE SCHOOL LUNCHEON.

The school luncheon as understood here is the one which takes the place of the noonday meal eaten by other members of the family at home. There are certain fundamental conditions required. First, it must be sufficient in quantity; second, it must be of the right food constituents and quality; third, it must have a variety from day to day so that the appetite does not flag; fourth, it must be attractively arranged in a sanitary carrier.

There are certain objectionable conditions surrounding the school luncheon that can not be removed: The child eats without the companionship of home people, and there is a consequent loss of interest in eating; games are started during the luncheon period that cause the child to eat as hurriedly as possible and not more than enough to satisfy the first hunger. As a result of this latter condition, the children run to the lunch carrier for a few hasty bites just before they enter school to begin their study.

The child should always be supplied with a fresh paper napkin and every article of food should be wrapped in paraffine paper. That paper which comes for the wrapping of butter is satisfactory, and cheaper than the large sheets of paraffine paper.

Unfortunately, many schools provide no comfortable place for the eating of the noon luncheon. The women

of every community should interest themselves in the conditions of the children at school and especially the conditions under which they eat or spend the noon-time.

THE CARRIER.

Each form of container for carrying school luncheons is subject to some criticism. The basket which permit ventilation also allows the entrance of dust and insects. The papier-mâché boxes are difficult to keep in an absolutely sanitary condition and when neglected become extremely objectionable. The tin pail keeps the food clean and prevents drying, but there is apt to be a mixture of odors and flavors.

Taken all in all, the tin pail is least undesirable. It should be thoroughly scalded and aired each evening so that it will be entirely fresh for the next day's use. The dinner pails which are supplied with compartments, folding cups, knives, and forks, are especially desirable but rather expensive. When properly cared for, they last for years, so the initial expense need not be considered.

The active, growing school child requires more food in proportion to its size than does either its father or mother. There are as many stunted children from lack of proper diet as there are stunted colts and calves. To attain its best physical development, a child must be at all times supplied with an abundance of easily-digested, properly prepared foods. These foods must be taken at regular intervals and presented in such a manner as to be attractive to the child.

It is not necessary that the child be restricted to three meals a day, but if food is taken oftener it must be eaten at definite and regular intervals. The growing child must meet its day's expenditure of energy by a sufficient quantity of food; and besides this, it must consume enough extra food to make the necessary growth of bone, muscle, nerve, and other tissues.

Insufficiently fed, the child does not attain proper growth, and certain tissues are so ill-nourished that deformity of structure results. Any child that is regularly indisposed to physical exertion, or is irritable and nervous, is probably the victim of some error of diet. There is either an insufficient amount of some needed variety, a total excess of quantity, or the food is so prepared and eaten as to disturb digestion and absorption. Because children are building nerves, muscles, and bone, it is essential that they have a greater proportion of fat, protein, and mineral matter in their diet than that which is usually prepared for adults.

The child of school age should use a great deal of milk, since milk supplies the essential constituents in an easily assimilated form. Eggs and meat are both necessary to the child and it is a mistake to attempt to substitute bulky, coarse vegetables and expect them to supply the protein needed. Now and then an article appears in the papers stating that the child who eats meat and eggs is more pugnacious and aggressive than the child deprived of these foods. It is quite probable

that this is true; for the anaemic, ill-nourished child is seldom physically vigorous, and because of his weakness is timid and shrinking in disposition. The active, noisy, romping child is the normal child. Something is seriously the matter when a child is always quiet and well-behaved.

The school child should be encouraged to eat an easily digested and nourishing breakfast. Fruit, well-cooked cereal, lightly cooked eggs, toast, and either cocoa made with milk or milk alone, furnishes an ideal breakfast. The child should be encouraged to rise early enough to eat his breakfast in a leisurely manner without haste or anxiety. A day is badly begun when there is a poorly made toilet and a hastily consumed breakfast.

Sandwiches must appear as a part of every luncheon. If possible, there should be two varieties furnished each day and the varieties should vary from day to day. If one variety is of meat, the other may be of some sweet. The meat should be ground and seasoned. Often it is well to moisten it with some good plain salad dressing. The meat may be fried ham, boiled ham, beef steak, roast beef, liver, or chicken. Cottage cheese, with or without the addition of nuts, makes a good filling, and ordinary purchase cheese may be mixed with nuts or small particles of pickle. Nuts ground with either figs or dates make an appetizing filling, as also do stewed prunes with nuts. Roasted peanuts ground at home and mixed with salad dressing are very much better than purchased peanut butter, but the latter is also relished by children.

Most of the above fillings can be prepared and placed in jelly glasses until needed. Of course they must not be allowed to become stale. The bread for the sandwiches should be cut very thin and spread evenly with butter. If the butter is first creamed thoroughly it can be spread thinly and evenly. No filling should be used that is inclined to soak into the bread. The crusts should be left on the bread.

It is well to have eggs appear in some form in the lunch box but not always hard boiled. Eggs may be made into steamed or baked custards, the flavoring of which should vary from time to time. There are also many egg and fruit combinations, such as the lemon and orange creams, which present the eggs in a new and attractive form.

An occasional portion of well made pie is not objectionable, but pie should not be a major part of every day's luncheon. Good cookies are relished by the children and satisfy their natural craving for sweets; if they are simple and well-made they are in no way objectionable.

The addition to the lunch of some "surprise," such as home-made candy adds interest to the luncheon. It is very desirable that the child should carry a small jar of sweet milk. The object of the noon lunch at school is not merely to fill, but to feed, the child.

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